

INTRODUCTION TO SWEDEN

By

INGVAR ANDERSSON

and others

Published by

THE SWEDISH INSTITUTE
STOCKHOLM

◀FORUM▶

Translation by
NILS G SAHLIN

Fourth Edition

Printed in Sweden by
Almqvist & Wiksells
BOKTRYCKERI AKTIEBOLAG
UPPSALA 1956

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As indicated by the title, this book aims to serve as an introduction to a study of Sweden. A comprehensive survey is made of the country and its people, its natural resources, and economic life, its history and modern society. The text follows a uniform plan and forms a connected story. No claim is advanced, however, in respect to exhaustive or definitive information. Only a general outline is drawn to furnish starting points for further studies, either through personal visits or the pursuit of other books. The first three editions, all now out of print, have been received with much interest abroad, which seems to prove that there is a need for a book of this kind. Therefore, we have felt that a new edition brought up to date and otherwise revised should appear.

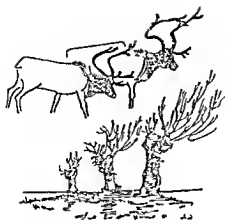
The basic material for the book was furnished and for this edition revised by Dr. Ingvar Andersson. Additional checking work has been made by various specialists on the fields treated in the book. Thus we are indebted to Dr. Nils Andrén, Professor Gunnar Heckscher, Mr. Mats Hilding, Dr. Gustaf Hillestrom, Dr. Erik Hook, Dr. Yngve Norinder, Mr. Jonas Orring, and Mr. Roland Pålsson. Some sections have been written by special authors: thus, Religious Life has been treated by Mr. Erik Sandberg and Social Welfare by Mr. Ernst Michanek.

Aside from a couple of brief passages, the section on the Press is based on a chapter by Professor Herbert Tingsten in *Nordisk Demokrati*. The pictorial material was originally edited by the late Mr Gosta Lundquist and has been revised by Dr Bertil Nydahl. The statistical material has been collected by Mr Gustaf Holmstedt. The editorial work was done at the Swedish Institute in Stockholm by Dr Bertil Nydahl, and the translation by Dr Nils G. Sjölin, President of Quinnipiac College, New Haven, Connecticut, U. S. A.

It should be mentioned that the Swedish Institute has published and distributed a number of books and printed or mimeographed pamphlets dealing with special subjects and intended to complement this volume.



Nils Holgersson is the hero of the famous book by Selma Lagerlof. The picture shows the start of *The Wonderful Adventures of Nils*. The thumbling begins the journey over Sweden on the gander's back from the shore of Skane. The wild geese are over the water. Part of a drawing by Sven Erixson. (In the public elementary school at Olofslund.)



THE LAND AND THE PEOPLE

SURVIV OF BACKGROUND
SIZE AND CLIMATE
MOUNTAINS AND SOIL
HIGHWAYS TO SWEDEN
PROVINCES AND TOWNS

Götaland

Scania

Norland

LANGUAGE AND POPULATION

SURVEY OF BACKGROUND

Sweden has been characterized as "a modern democracy on ancient foundations," and this phrase undoubtedly carries an essential point. Sweden's democracy is quite modern in its manifestations, and her liberty has ancient traditions. The social system has been greatly implemented and expanded during the past few decades, but it is based on a long historical development. Slavery was abolished in Sweden back in the fourteenth century, and no attempts to deprive the people of their liberty were successful even during the time when serfdom of the peasants was general on the Continent. Many of the country's traditions are still vital influences, its culture is based on old foundations, and the basic concepts of its constitution are time-honored.

The Swedish social system and cultural life have to a large extent developed from their native backgrounds. Foreign influences normally reached Sweden late and then only as after-math of the European trends.

Until comparatively recently the country remained an outpost in the geographical sense. The group of adventurous Swedes who over three hundred years ago landed with their two ships on the shore of present-day Delaware had a journey behind them which had consumed four months. Even a

hundred years ago the emigrant ships took from eight to nine weeks for the passage to America.

The air age in which we live has miraculously altered Sweden's location. Stockholm and Paris are a mere six hours apart; the great circle route from New York to Moscow crosses Sweden about two hundred miles north of Stockholm. Great liners reach the Swedish west coast in ten days or less from the United States, the airlines whisk the traveler across the Atlantic overnight. Modern polar projection maps indicate not only that Sweden is nearer the rest of the world than formerly seemed to be the case but also that she serves as an important transit point for much of today's global air traffic.

Typically Swedish are the deep forests and power-producing streams, the patches and plains which for centuries have yielded the people their hard-earned crops. But in Sweden, as in other countries, agriculture has lost its rank as the chief occupation of the people. Industrialization took place somewhat later than in other parts of Europe, but its progress was instead more rapid in Sweden than elsewhere. Many products of Swedish industry are known the world over, and foreign trade is actually one of the most important links in the country's relations with the rest of the world. Under normal conditions every country is included in the commercial contacts.

In Anglo-American accounts of World War II the name of Bofors, the large Swedish arms manufacturing concern, is frequently encountered. AGA automatic beacons, made in Sweden, are found on all the seven seas, Swedish telephones ring in almost every part of the globe, and Swedish matches are one of the best known international commodities.

Swedish pulp, one of the country's most important products, is shipped everywhere. A Swedish industrialist made the following comment about it shortly before World War II.

"It travels to California and returns to Sweden as tissue

around fragrant oranges; to Yokohama and becomes colored lanterns; to Buenos Aires for conversion into imitation leather; to Philadelphia, where it is turned into cartons, cement bags, rugs, and fishing lines; to the Thames and becomes newsprint; as basic material to the rayon-stocking mills in Genoa; and to the factories in Rouen, where molded toys are made."

Goods unloaded in Swedish ports come from every corner of the earth: raw materials, such as cotton, hemp, and flax for the textile mills; soybean oil for margarine manufacture; coffee in great quantities to satisfy the national preference in beverages; machinery, motor cars, nylons. Two of the most vital prerequisites for Sweden's economic activity, coal and oil, must be imported from abroad. Brisk commercial activity is characteristic of modern Sweden. On the whole, Sweden is more dependent than most countries on her foreign trade.

But Sweden also has important cultural contacts with other countries. Her contribution to the world of scientists, scholars, authors, and artists is considerable; in Sweden those from abroad are met with understanding and esteem. Sweden's cultural life is much exposed to influences and impressions from abroad. Literature and films in English and other foreign tongues find eager audiences, language studies are popular, the members of the professions keep themselves informed of progress abroad. Evidence of contact is also found in numerous other connections. In Sinclair Lewis' *Martin Arrowsmith* we encounter a vividly drawn character who is a Swede and in Willa Cather's novels we frequently find descendants of Swedish immigrants. August Strindberg, the Swedish playwright, undoubtedly exerted an influence on Shaw and O'Neill. The fame of some outstanding Swedish women has spread as far as the United States: Fredrika Bremer, novelist, author of travel descriptions from America, and feminist; Ellen Key, societal philosopher and writer; Selma Lagerlöf, Nobel Prize winner

and world-famed author; Elsa Beskow, fairy tale writer; and film stars, such as Greta Garbo and Ingrid Bergman.

A noted symbol of the intellectual contacts between Sweden and the rest of the world is the Nobel Prizes. They were established toward the end of the last century by Alfred Nobel, inventor of dynamite and other explosives. The income from the Nobel Fund is distributed annually to "those who during the past year have rendered humanity the greatest service" through scientific discoveries (physics, chemistry, and medicine), creative literary work, and the furtherance of world peace. According to the donor's will, no regard is paid to the candidate's nationality; another significant proviso is that the Peace Prize be made by the parliament of Norway, at that time and until 1905 united with Sweden.

For nearly three centuries Sweden has been without colonial domains. New Sweden, the territory surrounding the present city of Wilmington, Delaware, was settled by Swedes and Finns in 1638, but the sovereignty was soon lost to the Dutch. Finland, lost to the Russians in 1809, had since the twelfth century been an integral part of the Swedish kingdom. The final remnant of colonial possession was the island of St. Bartholomew in the West Indies, sold to France in 1877 after scarcely a century of Swedish rule.

Sweden has no minority problem within its boundaries and no ambitions for expansion without. The country has been at peace with her neighbors for more than 140 years. But the Swedes as individuals are adventurous travelers. Many have settled in every part of the world and made notable economic and intellectual contributions to the countries which have welcomed them.

Swedish engineers, businessmen, and workers have played a significant role in many parts of the world. They have helped build factories and power plants in Russia, railroads and

bridges in Turkey and Iran. Swedish officers, physicians, teachers, and other experts are once more helping Haile Selassie create a new Ethiopia, 140 being in the service of the Ethiopian government in 1947. Most striking is the migratory movement to the United States which took place in the second half of the nineteenth century. By 1890 nearly half a million native Swedes were settled in America, and this number has since remained approximately constant (1950: 324,944). Inclusion of the second generation brings the number of inhabitants of Swedish descent in the United States up to about 1,200,000.

These residents have done their share in building America. Several of New York's and especially Chicago's skyscrapers have to some degree risen under the hands of Swedish builders and craftsmen, and so have thousands of private homes; the great Greyhound transportation network had a Swede at its head; the Matson Line, organized by a former Swedish sea captain, is one of the largest on the Pacific coast; one of Ford's precision experts was a Swede; men of Swedish parentage sit in the United States Congress; Carl Sandburg, Charles Lindbergh, Edgar Bergen are random names of nationally known, second generation American Swedes. In the course of the years Swedish immigrants and their children have brought under cultivation an estimated ten million acres in the United States, an area equal to all the arable land in Sweden.

Swedish explorers have probed the far-away, uncharted spots on our maps. In the eighteenth century some disciples of Karl von Linné (Linnaeus) accompanied Captain Cook on his travels around the world and penetrated deeper into the Antarctic than anyone else prior to such modern explorers as Shackleton, Amundsen, and Byrd. Some of Linné's other students undertook extensive journeys all over the globe. Later scientific travelers from Sweden made notable contributions. A. E. Nor-

denskiold was the first to clear the Northeast Passage (1878—1879), making possible the circumnavigation of the Old World.

The first attempt to fly to the North Pole was made by a Swede, S. A. Andrée, whose balloon went down in the arctic wastes in 1897. Sven Hedin was famed as the explorer of Tibet, making his first expedition in 1894—1897, his last in 1938. Sten Bergman was one of the first scientists to investigate Kamchatka.

This activity has had its counterpart in domestic endeavors, and Sweden has been able to gain a high measure of economic security, even a certain affluence, at least by European standards. The country which in 1632 hesitated to invite foreign representatives to the funeral of its fallen king, fearing that "they will see how poor we are," today welcomes guests from abroad and encourages them to observe and write, if they choose, without restriction.

We shall attempt to show in the following chapters how this has come about and in so doing give an account of the natural resources placed at the disposal of Sweden's inhabitants.

SIZE AND CLIMATE

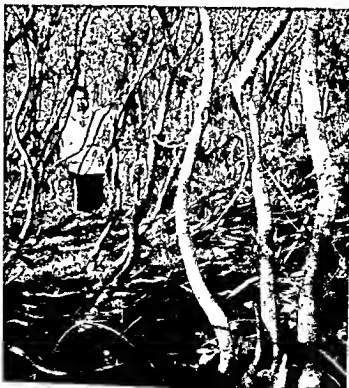
A circle drawn with Tralleborg, Sweden's southernmost town, as the center and begun at Treriksroset in the far north where Finland, Norway, and Sweden meet would pass slightly east of Moscow, touch Naples and almost the Spanish-French boundary to the south, and skirt the southwestern coast of Ireland. Clearly Sweden is a large European country; superimposed upon the United States its extremes would reach from Washington, D. C., to the southern tip of Florida.



1 Typically Swedish scenery Photo by Lennart Nilsson



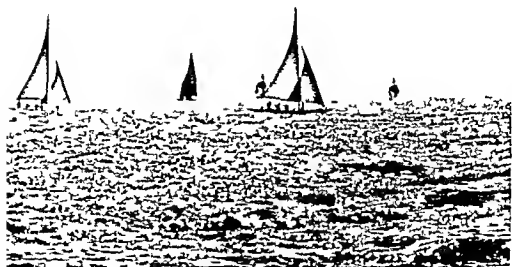
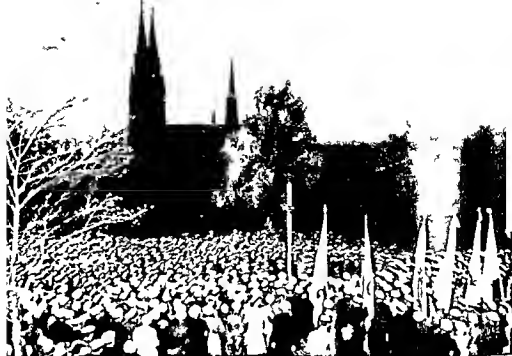
2 and 3 Wide divergencies in climate and scenery exist among the various parts of a country as extensive as Sweden. In Skåne the climate resembles that of Central Europe the winter lasting about two months. In good years peaches mulberries and walnuts ripen here. Above View from the plains of Skåne with a field of ripe rye and left a beech forest in the central part of the province. Photos by Bertil Norberg and Frans Malmros.



4 and 5. In some parts of northernmost Sweden, on the barren tundras and up in the high mountain terrain, the winter is eight months long. During the short but intensive summer the sun shines night and day for two months, and an almost luxuriant flora springs up in these arctic regions. High up on the mountain slopes the plants may reach the height of a man, and in the valleys (right) the bush willow thickets become nearly impenetrable. Above: View toward "Lapp Gate" (*Lapp-porten*) near Abisko, internationally known tourist center. Photos by Lennart Nilsson and Gösta Lundquist.









10 and 11 In a northern country like Sweden spring and summer — vacation time for most Swedes — are joyously anticipated seasons Upper picture opposite page Students in Uppsala greet the arrival of spring on Walpurgis Night April 30th Below July regatta in the Stockholm archipelago Photos by O Sagerholm and Gunnar Lundh

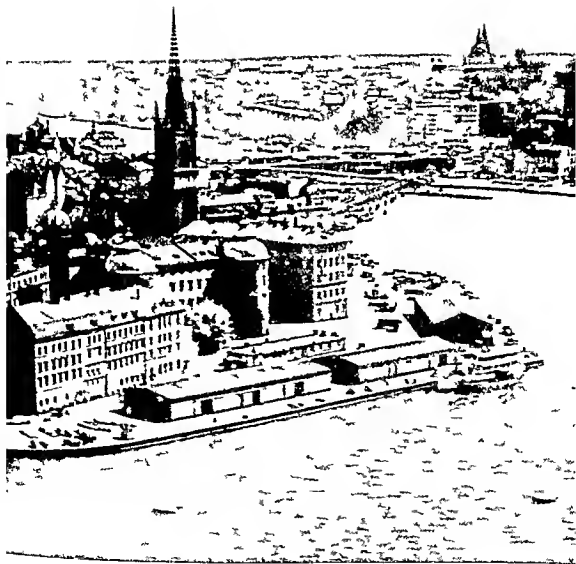
12 Midsummer holiday in Leksand province of Dalarna Photo by Olof Ekberg



13 Many of the pleasant small towns in Sweden are old and have a marked historical background. One of the most interesting is Skara in Västergötland with a medieval cathedral and a gymnasium from 1641. The pupils still wear the old school uniform. Photo by Lennart af Petersens.

14 and 15 Below Norrtälje a typical small town in central Sweden with the church in the center and neat wooden cottages lining the streets. The church in the center is also a characteristic of the towns in Norrland which are situated at the river mouths and valleys. Photos by Aero naut c and Bo Torngren



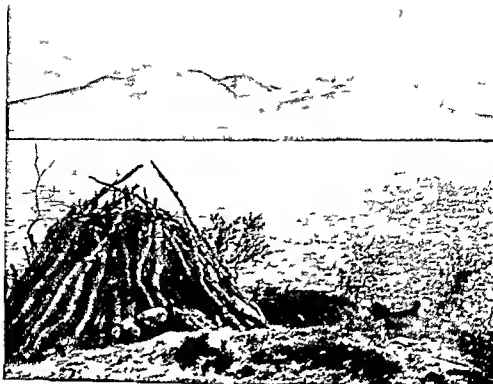






17 and 18 Forests and more forests meet the eye of the traveler in Sweden. In large parts of the country the inhabited and cleared areas are only small patches in the green ocean of the woods. A small farm at Kilsbergen in the province of Narke and a moose in a forest marsh Sodermanland. Photos by Erik Israelsson and Carl Odelberg

19 Next to the forests the rivers with their rapids and falls are the most significant basis for Sweden's economic life. Photo by Lennart Nilsson



20 and 21 About one seventh of the country's area is mountain territory with large wastelands. Here during the summer the Lapps roam with their herds of reindeer, but large numbers of tourists also find their way into these regions. Above: A Lapp hut in Akkajaure and left the postman comes to a Lapp village. Photos by Gosta Lundquist and Lennart Nilsson.

Sweden's 173,347 square miles rank her fifth among the large countries of Europe; only France, Germany, Russia, and Spain have larger area. Twenty states the size of Sweden would approximate the area of continental United States.

In its contours the country is not unlike California, the area of Sweden being about ten percent larger. But Sweden's capital, Stockholm, lies on the latitude of northern Labrador, the Arctic Circle passes through in the north, and the country cannot boast a Californian climate. However, because of the warm currents carried to Scandinavia by the Gulf Stream, Sweden's climate is surprisingly mild. The mean annual temperature ranges from 27°F. in the north to 45°F. in the south. Stockholm's mean temperature indicates that the city is cooler than New York both in winter and summer.

Wide divergencies in climate naturally exist among the various parts of a country as extensive as Sweden. The southern end averages only 56 days annually with a mean temperature under the freezing-point; farthest north this number rises to 217. In warm years walnuts, grapes, peaches, and mulberries ripen down south; the northern provinces cultivate hardy varieties of barley, wheat, and certain vegetables. Because of the long summer days in the north and with the help of modern cross-breeding, Norrland (North Land) is making gradual progress toward the successful raising of crops and fruits formerly thought impossible there.

Scattered habitations have existed in Norrland since pre-historic times, but not until about a century ago did this part of the country really begin to be developed. A Swedish pioneer spirit akin to that of America's frontier has prompted the people to penetrate the wilderness up to the very foot of the forbidding mountain ranges. The northern half of the country is inhabited by only twelve percent of the total population but possesses tremendous economic values because of its resources

in forests and metal ores. Ancient Sweden still has regions to conquer and room for development. This inspires the inhabitants to undertake new ventures, to continue exploring the wilderness and make new discoveries. Both for the nation and the individuals the reward is greater material well-being.

MOUNTAINS AND SOIL

Barren mountains are found only in the region farthest to the northwest in Sweden, and they bear no comparison with those of Switzerland or Norway. Nevertheless, it is fairly easy to gain a conception of the groundmass on which the country rests. A geographer has pointed out that it is conveniently studied by examining some of the notable buildings in Sweden. The primary rock, mostly gray granite, was used rather rough-hewn in the building of some of the oldest stone churches in central Sweden, which contributed to their distinctive, severe appearance. In modern times the stonecutting industry has produced excellent building materials from Swedish granite in all its fine hues. Outstanding examples are the red granite of the House of Parliament and the blue-gray granite in the colonnade of Stockholm's Concert Hall. Granite and gneiss lie at the surface in the archipelagoes and many other places; from them originated the gravel, rubblestone, and lean soil found in various parts of the country. Another primary rock is the leptite. While not used for construction, it has, nevertheless, determined the settling of considerable regions in Sweden, for this and related rocks contain most of the country's ore, yielding iron, copper, silver, and gold.

Other deposits on top of the bedrock exist, but they are found in few and limited regions, where they remain at all,

most of them having been worn away. There are, however, Silurian deposits in places, containing slate, sandstone, and limestone. They, too, can be studied in the public buildings. As examples may be mentioned the Lund Cathedral in southern Sweden, built of sandstone in the twelfth century; the beautiful Gotland churches of limestone from that island; Vadstena's famous abbey, constructed of bluish limestone from the province of Östergötland; the venerable church at Husaby, built of sandstone from Västergötland; and many others. These buildings also indicate to a certain extent the location of the Silurian deposits, from which fertile soil has been formed. The main areas of this type include the islands of Öland and Gotland, the province of Skåne, the plains in the provinces of Östergötland, Västergötland, Närke, and certain parts of Dalarna and Jämtland.

There are no deposits from the next few geological periods, and hence none from the Carboniferous. Sweden's only supply of fossil fuel exists in a few minor coal deposits in northwestern Skåne from the Triassic and Jurassic periods. The Cretaceous period left traces in southern Skåne. However, in the greater part of the country the most recent deposits lie directly on the primary rock and have been formed from it in the course of millions of years as the rock disintegrated into rubblestone, gravel, and sand. These lean soils place their stamp on most of the country. Their evolution is remarkable, relatively recent, and carefully investigated by the geologists.

The various geological formations thus provide the very basis for the country and the life of its people. The primary rock in some regions contains valuable ores. Lean soils produced from the disintegration of the primary rock by natural forces cover the greater part of Sweden's forested regions. The Silurian rocks, partly pulverized into good earth, are found in relatively small and scattered areas. In the south, finally, are

the scanty, hard coal deposits. This, then, is literally the foundation at man's disposal in Sweden. Lack of coal and oil must, however, be considered a serious deficiency in Sweden's economic life and an obstacle to her self-sufficiency, if again cut off from the rest of the world. This was particularly noticeable during the war years and has even caused difficulties since then.

HIGHWAYS TO SWEDEN

The most important approaches to Sweden have always been by water. More than half of the boundary, over 1500 miles, is coastline. Travelers from the west first meet the outer, barren rocks of Bohuslän province, then the larger, inhabited islands, and finally arrive at Sweden's largest ocean port, Göteborg (*yü'tě bö'r'y'*; Gothenburg). The approach from the east or southeast is less austere, for the seven thousand islands in the Stockholm archipelago are for the most part green and friendly. Southern sea lanes lead from Denmark to the cities of Malmö and Helsingborg, from the Continent to the small town of Trälleborg, where the great railroad ferries dock. Here the stranger is greeted by the broad plains of southern Skåne and an open shore. Öresund (The Sound) at its narrowest part looks like a broad river separating Denmark and Sweden. Shakespeare laid the scene of his *Hamlet* here, in the Danish castle of Kronborg near Helsingör (Elsinore), but neither the Danish nor the Swedish coast has any

“... dreadful summit of the cliff
That beetles o'er his base into the sea.”

“Dreadful summits” are met, however, when the traveler enters Sweden from northern Norway. Railways and roads

pick a cautious path through the mountainous terrain and unite the two countries. The snow-capped mountains on the Swedish side are succeeded by a wide forest region notched with river valleys, this in turn by the fertile seaboard on the Gulf of Bothnia. Torneälv (*älv* = river) and Muonioälv form the boundary between Sweden and Finland, and the railway crosses near the mouth of the Torne. But the Swedish coaches do not roll on, for the Finnish railways use the wider, Russian gauge, and a transfer is necessary.

PROVINCES AND TOWNS

The country is divided into three parts: Götaland (Land of the Goths) in the south, Svealand (Land of the Svear, i. e. Swedes) in the middle, and Norrland in the north. Administratively Sweden is portioned into administrative districts (*län*) and the City of Stockholm as a separate unit, but the older division into provinces is of greater historical interest and comes more readily to the Swedish mind. The Swedes prefer to speak in terms of Skåne or Dalarna (Dalecarlia), say, as provinces, irrespective of the district boundaries. Skåne, for example, is divided into two administrative districts; the province of Öland is a part of Kalmar district, which itself is one of three districts in the province of Småland.

Götaland

Skåne is "Sweden's Granary," her southernmost province with the best farmland, where 12 % of the country's population live on 2 $\frac{1}{2}$ % of the total area. Here the country's largest wheat crop is produced, but the province also boasts large

industrial centers. This was the first region in the country to be settled, and a great number of historic structures testify to its past. Most notable are the famous royal grave at Kivik, the Romanesque cathedral in Lund, and the many magnificent castles ranging in time of construction from the fifteenth to the seventeenth century. The people of this province are considered capable and energetic, conscious of their own worth, and well versed in the art of good living.

On the whole, Skåne is not a typical Swedish region, but to the north in the province the more characteristic forests begin. Northeast of Skåne lies the province of *Blekinge* with the Karlskrona naval base. *Halland* extends to the northwest with a densely populated, agricultural region in the southern part and numerous resorts along the shore. Largest of Götaland's provinces is *Småland*, by and large a lean and stony territory. Its people are persevering and ingenious. They have started a large number of small-scale industries, such as shops that make traps to catch mice in Australia or wooden clotheshangers, for world-wide export. Småland also has developed some aircraft industries, and the Swedish match industry centers in Jönköping, capital of the province. The world-wide concern with the well-known "Three Stars" for a trade-mark has its home office in this town. Nearby is the town of Huskvarna, famous for its manufacture of shotguns, rifles, and sewing machines. Vättern, a long, deep, mysterious lake claimed by the folk tale to be bottomless and connected under ground with the Lake of Constance, extends from Jönköping about eighty miles to the north. The provinces of Östergötland and Västergötland lie east and west of the lake, respectively.

[The points of the compass frequently appear in Swedish placenames and are easy to identify: *norr-*, *öster-*, *söder-*, and *väster-* are the combining forms corresponding to north, east, south, and west.]

Östergötland is a fertile agricultural region, rich in historical relics. Carved on the famed "Rök Stone" is the longest runic inscription known; Sweden's oldest monastery was located at Alvastra. Vadstena on the Vättern shore was Saint Birgitta's (Bridget's) town and the country's spiritual focus during the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries. Norrköping is the oldest and largest textile manufacturing center.

Västergötland's people have always been known for their excellence in weaving and other homecrafts, for their briskness and business ability. Large textile industries are located around Borås. The "Västgöta Mountains" are rare geological formations which display interesting and varied stratification. All of this region is rich in old traditions.

A narrow strip of *Västergötland* follows the navigable Göta River on both sides down to the west coast. For centuries this corridor was Sweden's only outlet in that direction, located between Halland, then a Danish possession, and Bohuslän, which belonged to Norway. Many a bitter battle was fought for this strip of land. At the mouth of the river lies Sweden's ocean port and second largest city, *Göteborg*. Her shipyards place Sweden high among the shipbuilding nations. Göteborg is also a thriving manufacturing city, especially for textiles and metal goods.

To the north of Göteborg lies *Bohuslän*, traditionally the province of seafarers, many of whom today engage in deep sea fishing. It should also be mentioned that Bohuslän is richer in rock carvings than any other region. These remarkable instances of primitive art were carved in the rocks during the Bronze Age, about a thousand years before the birth of Christ, for purposes of religion and magic. In the north, Bohuslän adjoins Norway, and farther up, at the boundary, lies the province of *Dalsland*, a scenic Swedish idyl.

Göteborg also includes two large islands in the Baltic, *Got-*

land and *Oland*, each a separate province. Both islands rest on a groundmass of limestone, both have an interesting, unusual flora and a mild climate. Gotland's capital is Visby, in the Middle Ages the foremost town in the Hanseatic League and the transit point for trade between the northern countries, Germany, and Eastern Europe. The 'City of Roses and Ruins' with its famous tower-studded wall from the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries has remarkably well preserved its medieval character and is a mecca for foreign visitors.

Near Oland's popular resort Borgholm is another famous ruin, located at the edge of Alvaret, a wide limestone tableland of great interest to botanists and artists.

Svealand

Gotland and Svealand are separated by ridges and deep forests. In the old days this boundary region was very difficult to penetrate. Now the main railway lines and comfortable highways traverse these parts. The main provinces of Svealand are grouped around Malaren, a lake studded with islands and tattered by a thousand bays and straits. To the south of Malaren lies *Sodermanland*, sometimes called Sweden's most typical province. This characterization is based on the scenic beauty of sparkling waters, white birches, rolling hills, and prosperous farms. Many consider this the province where the finest Swedish is spoken. Most notable among its industrial centers is Eskilstuna, famous for the manufacture of metal goods.

North of Lake Malaren lies the province of *Uppland*, once the political and cultural focus in the old kingdom of the Svear. Powerful and pomp-loving kings resided here, as attested by the huge burial mounds still preserved near the former heathen temple at Gamla (Old) Uppsala. On the remains of this temple the first Christian cathedral in Sweden

was built. Uppsala, seat of Sweden's oldest university (1477) and residence of the archbishop, lies in the approximate center of the province.

The coastal regions of Uppland are collectively known as Roslagen and were during the ninth century and later the starting point for viking forays against Russia. In the northern part of the province an excellent iron ore is mined.

Stockholm, the nation's capital and as such the seat of royalty, government, and parliament, is situated where Lake Mälaren overflows into the Baltic Sea. One of the world's most attractively located cities, Stockholm is widely known for its beauty and grace. The city is rich in outstanding examples of fine architecture, old and modern, such as the historic Riddarholm Church, the Royal Palace built by Nicodemus Tessin the Younger in the eighteenth century, Ragnar Östberg's famous City Hall, the Stadium of the 1912 Olympics, the inspiring modern Högalid and Engelbrekt churches, to mention but a few. Stockholm's 6,170 acres of parks are well planned and carefully maintained; it is difficult to pause anywhere without a view toward a park area with trees and flowers or toward a glittering waterway. The opera and the theater flourish; the wide popularity of the modern film is attested by a hundred cinemas, large and small. The industrial world is represented by such internationally known concerns as De Laval (turbines), AB Separator, AB Atlas Copco (air compressors and pneumatic tools), AGA (automatic gas beacons), L. M. Ericsson (telephones), and Elektrolux (refrigerators and vacuum cleaners), AB Bahco (Primus stoves and Bahco tools), with headquarters and factories in the capital or its immediate vicinity.

The iron districts in the provinces northwest of Mälaren, known collectively as Bergslagen, are a metal belt around the waist of Sweden. Iron mining began here in the thirteenth

century, but even prior to that the valuable ore had been gathered from the bottoms of lakes and marshes. The feeling for iron and how to treat it has been handed down among the people from time immemorial. Swedish iron mining and smelting originated in the province of *Västmanland*, but the mining tradition is also strong in the northern parts of the neighboring province of *Närke*. Örebro, province capital of *Närke*, is a shoe manufacturing center and located on a fertile plain, not in mining territory. Farthest west toward the Norwegian boundary and north of Sweden's largest lake, Vanern, lies the fair province of *Värmland*. This is a classic mining and iron-working region and, furthermore, the province where forestry in the modern sense was first practiced. It is also known in Sweden as the promised land of poetry and imagination. Four of Sweden's chief literary representatives were born in *Värmland*: Esaias Tegnér (1782—1846), Erik Gustaf Geijer (1783—1847), Gustaf Fröding (1860—1911), and Selma Lagerlöf (1858—1940). *Värmland* has become known as the "Gösta Berling Country" after the hero in one of Selma Lagerlöf's best-known novels.

Northernmost of the Svealand provinces is *Dalarna* (Dalecarlia) where ancient folkways, costumes, and architecture still are in evidence. In this historic region with its deeply rooted, artistic and cultural traditions the people have deliberately preserved many aspects of ages past. Perhaps somewhat of a consciously preserved attraction for the foreign visitors is involved here, but the share of genuine tradition is considerable. In the southern part of the province, agriculture and mining industry exist side by side, while in the north the uniquely old-fashioned farming country dominates. *Dalarna*'s center is beautiful Lake Siljan; its environs are famous travel territory both for the Swedes themselves and their guests from abroad. Names such as Rättvik, Leksand, and Mora are rich

in tradition; at Mora, Anders Zorn, one of Sweden's foremost artists, made his home.

The inhabitants of Dalarna are known for the retention of their distinctive group characteristics. During the sixteenth century, when Sweden as we know it was in a formative stage, the Dalecarlians were the ones who most stubbornly defended the ancient provincial rights and distinctions. They were the ones who in the end rallied around Gustav Vasa (1496—1560), the founder of modern Sweden, recalling him from his flight toward Norway. A sixty-mile ski race, the cross-country "Vasa Run," is held every winter along the path of that unfinished journey.

Bergslagen, Sweden's oldest industrial region, was the hub from which the classic Swedish liberation movements emanated. Leaders in the successful attempts to throw off the foreign yoke were such men as Engelbrekt Engelbrektsson (d. 1436) and Gustav Vasa. As already indicated, many of the most important ironworking and metal industries are now located here, and for Swedish conditions it is a densely inhabited industrial territory. Vasterås is the home town of the Swedish Metal Works and of ASEA (Allmanna Svenska Elektriska Aktiebolaget, Sweden's General Electric Company, but not connected with the American GE). Large mines, ironworks, and factories, such as Grangesberg, Fagersta, Avesta, and Bofors, are scattered throughout Bergslagen. Forest industries, like the Billerud Company are found in the western part, i. e. in the province of Varmland. Especially characteristic of the Swedish industrial tradition are two large concerns which since the distant past have combined forestry and agriculture with iron and wood processing. Stora Kopparbergs Bergslags Aktiebolag with home offices in Falun—known in England as "Stora" (Great)—is the world's oldest company still in operation. Its history dates back to the

1280's, and the properties include ironworks like Domnarvet and wood processing plants like Skutskär on the Gulf of Bothnia coast. The second large concern is the Uddeholm Company in Värmland, owner of a number of such ironworks as Hagfors and of the wood product industries at Skoghäll, where the Klar River empties into Lake Vänern.

Norrland

No conspicuous change in scenery marks the transition from northern Svealand to southern Norrland. Popular winter resorts and barren mountains are found even in upper Dalarna toward the Norwegian boundary. The comparatively low terrain north of Dalälven (Dal River) does not represent an appreciable change; it is merely a continuation of the Bergslagen landscape. But this great river, which holds the long distance record as a timber carrier, is the natural boundary between Norrland and the rest of Sweden.

As the traveler proceeds farther and farther north, he finds himself more and more obviously in the "snow regions." Because of this climatic difference and the distances involved, the Norrland provinces were settled more recently than those of Svealand and Götaland. Norrland was the last part of the country to be colonized, and here a vigorous frontier spirit still prevails. We mentioned above that Norrland actually began to be affected by modern progress only about a hundred years ago. As a result, the provinces in the north are not so differentiated in the public mind as those farther south. They may, to be sure, seem rather like one another when viewed from the speeding train as it passes through the vast forest regions of the interior, divided by the large river valleys, or through the lowlands along the coast. Nevertheless, each province possesses its own, very characteristic features.

Gästrikland, southernmost and smallest of them all, has little more of the northern character than its neighbor to the south, but even here the forest industries, Norrland's chief occupation, are much in evidence. The iron industry also reaches way up here. One of Sweden's best known ironworks, Sandviken, is located in *Gästrikland*, and at an ironworks in this province the historic event of the first successful Bessemer smelting took place in 1858.

In *Hälsingland*, the next province to the north along the coast, forestry and its industries flourish on the tremendous scale characteristic of modern Norrland. Today a considerable portion of Sweden's life and activity pulsates in these wooded provinces. The immense forests in the upper regions supply the raw material; the network of rivers which combine to create the great Norrland waterways to the coast furnishes water power for electricity and transport flumes for the timber; and near the harbors and towns at the mouths of the major rivers lie the huge sawmills and pulp factories. Along the lower part of the Ljusna River and at its mouth we encounter a series of large, industrial communities, such as Bergvik, the Marma Works, and others. The greatest concentration of forest industries is located in the coastal region of *Medelpad*, around the mouths of the Ljunga and Indal rivers. It is "a continuous, densely populated, town-like settlement" north and south of the town of Sundsvall, nearly twenty miles in length along the shore and with a total population of 60,000.

Largest of the great waterways is the Ångerman River, most of which runs through the province of *Ångermanland*. Far up into the river valley extends Ådalen, another large area studded with forest industries, known both for its serious labor conflicts in former days and for its tradition of romance and poetry, the latter perpetuated especially by the Norrland-born author Pelle Molin. Härnösand, in the southern corner, is the

capital of the province. Farthest north and in southern *Västerbotten*, the adjacent province, we encounter the Mo and Domsjö Works. The companies operating in these industrial regions are among the largest concerns in the country, and under normal conditions many of them engage in world-wide export. Names of factories as well as settlements in many instances indicate the identity of the concerns. In this connection the Swedish Cellulose Company should also be mentioned, a holding company for several of the large factories along the seaboard. Ludvig Nordström, a Swedish author of note, has devoted much of his literary production to the Norrland provinces, especially to Ångermanland. He once called this part of the country "Sweden's Gold Coast," and the expression is undoubtedly justified.

In the interior and along the Norwegian boundary lie two more of the Norrland provinces. *Härjedalen* is the most secluded of all. It has no towns, no modern industry, and the communications are poor. Life in Härjedalen still retains some of the pioneer aspects. To the north lies *Jämtland*. The central portion of this province is Sweden's northernmost, first-rate agricultural area, a fertile Silurian region which has fostered a population of individualists. Its focus is Storsjön (Great Lake), which is also Sweden's Loch Ness, for the myth about an aquatic monster has been perpetuated for centuries. Jämtland's highlands toward the mountains on the Norwegian boundary include the most widely known regions for winter sports in Sweden. Åre and Storlien are the centers, favorite haunts of the skiers.

Most travelers would by now undoubtedly believe that they had journeyed quite far to the north, but actually we are only near the middle of Sweden. Somewhat south of Östersund, capital of the province, grow three stately pines which indicate the country's geographical center.

There remains the immense, sparsely populated territory of the upper half of Sweden. *Västerbotten* and *Norrbotten* (West and North Bothnia) are the coastal provinces, named after their location in respect to the Gulf of Bothnia. Nowadays sawmills and other forest industries of great importance are located at the mouths of the rivers in these provinces. Quite large settlements have sprung up where such rivers as the Ume, the Skellefte, and the Pite reach the Gulf. In the farming areas frost-resistant grains yield harvests, the size of which can be explained only on the basis of intensive agricultural research.

One discovery made in Vasterbotten has extended the concept of "Sweden's Gold Coast" to the upper reaches of the Gulf of Bothnia: the gold deposits at Boliden, which also yield silver, copper, sulphur, and other minerals. Large quantities of arsenic is a by-product here. Recently this dangerous poison has been utilized for the impregnation and preservation of wood. It is also used to shorten the life span of locusts in South Africa and other countries. Curiously enough, the location of the large gold veins at Boliden was indicated by Olaus Magnus, Sweden's last Catholic bishop and a learned historian, on his map, *Carta Marina*, printed 1539 in Rome. With the medieval cartographer's fancy he symbolized the region of his *Mina aurea* with an egg-hatching rooster.

To the west of Vasterbotten and Norrbotten lies *Lappland*, home of nomadic Lapps and their reindeer, which in its northern part is also the land of the midnight sun and of the mid-winter darkness. This immense province with its towering mountains, extensive bogs, and deep forests extends all the way to the Arctic Circle and far beyond. The interior of the region was not made accessible by modern communications until twenty years ago when the Inland Railroad was completed. Over a period of twenty-seven years, this road was gradually advanced through an almost complete wilderness.

The relatively few remaining Lapps—around 10,000—keep a total of about 200,000 reindeer as their principal means of livelihood. So far, Lappland has only two towns, Lycksele, capital of the region, and Kiruna. The latter is a well organized, modern community which has grown up around the tremendous, surface-mined Kirunavaara iron ore mountain. With a population of over 20,000, it is considered the world's largest community north of the Arctic Circle. Within Kiruna's liberally drawn town limits lies Kebnekajse, Sweden's highest mountain (6,965 ft.).

Southeast of Kiruna lies Malmberget, an iron ore mine whose net of electric railways through the galleries is more extensive than London's combined undergrounds. From two mines, whose metal yield is one of the highest found anywhere, about two and a half million tons of ore are extracted annually. Most of this is exported but some is smelted and semifinished at the ironworks in Luleå. This plant is owned by the state and is, so far, the only instance of state competition with private enterprise in the industry. It was originally erected as a measure to combat unemployment in the province.

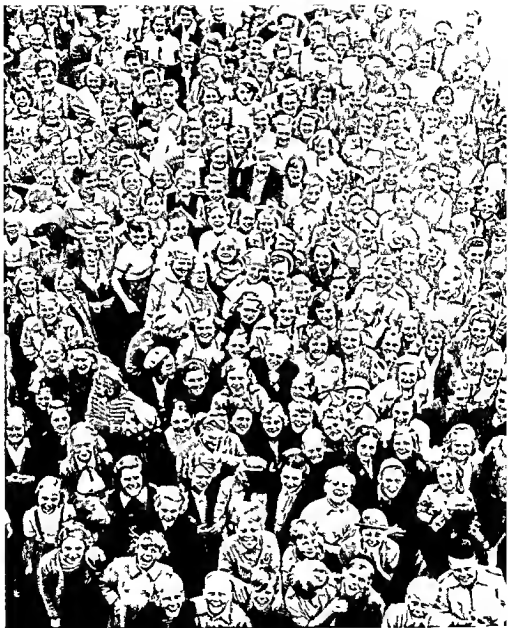
A few miles southwest of Malmberget, but still well above the Arctic Circle, the government operates the great hydro-electric plants at Porjus and Harsprånget. The latter has re-





23 and 24 Workers
from different parts
of Sweden Photos by
Lennart Nilsson





ferent translations (English: *The Wonderful Adventures of Nils*). Most of what Nils saw, and we in retracing his flight, was undeniably forests, for the tilled soil resembles small oases in a desert of green. But Nils also had the opportunity to observe the fields, the towns, and the industrial communities, as does the airline passenger of today. With this air map of the country in mind, we shall give a résumé of Sweden's economic life in the following chapter. Her fundamental resources in soil, mountains, and forests we have now surveyed.

LANGUAGE AND POPULATION

When the English or American visitor encounters the Swedish place names, the close relation between his own language and that of his hosts readily becomes apparent. Many words are identical in spelling: arm — *arm*, finger — *finger*, hand — *hand*, hare — *bare*, son — *son*; others are close cognates in the two languages, such as crown — *krona*, king — *kung*, sea — *sjo*. Others again have in the course of the centuries, while still cognates, diverged in meaning: time — *timme* (hour), tiding — *tidning* (newspaper), flood — *flod* (river).

The Swedish language has borrowed many words from the English in recent years, largely of a technical or economic nature and in the world of sports and entertainment. Words such as 'strike' have been phonetically modified (*strejk*), others have been adopted unchanged (lockout, handicap, tank, jeep, game, set, clearing, jitterbug). An interesting loan in the other direction is the word *tungsten* ('heavy stone'), the Swedish name for the element discovered by the brilliant chemist Scheele (shālě) in the 1780's, often called wolfram.

Another is *smörgåsbord*, frequently abused in spelling, pronunciation, and preparation.

The uniformity in place names and in the language as a whole indicates that the same race has lived in Sweden from the earliest times. On the whole, homogeneity in race, language, and religion is one of Sweden's characteristics. An exception is northern Lappland, where Lapp and Finnish elements are clearly traceable in the place names.

Sweden has a population of about 7,200,000, including about 30,000 Finns and 10,000 Lapps, but the number of the latter is steadily decreasing. Sociologists value the fact that Sweden's records of vital statistics are the oldest in the world and have been meticulously kept since the middle of the eighteenth century. These records indicate, for instance, an increase in the average height and improved physical characteristics. The greater number of Swedes are fair, with light hair and blue or bluish-gray eyes, but dark hair and brown eyes are by no means exceptional. Immigrations have from time to time left definite traces in the population.

Especially strong was the German penetration in the Middle Ages and the centuries immediately following. According to a statute from the fourteenth century, not more than one half of the members in the municipal administrations could be Germans. Dutchmen and Walloons, the latter natives of Belgium, were induced to move to Sweden and assist in her economic development, particularly in the iron industry. Their descendants are still in evidence. A few Jews immigrated, beginning mostly when King Gustav III granted them official admission toward the end of the eighteenth century. Scotsmen favored Göteborg when they settled in Sweden. In the seventeenth century some Finns migrated to Värmland and other central Swedish provinces. On the other hand, a Swedish population of about 350,000 still live in Finland. They are

the descendants of Swedish colonists to that country and have in a high degree preserved the old Swedish traditions, perhaps with less admixture than anywhere else. In Sweden, however, each foreign influx was fairly rapidly assimilated, and today the homogeneity of the population is quite striking.

The greatest immigration, however, has taken place during the recent war years, so disastrous to the rest of Europe. Both the government and individuals readily gave asylum to the victims of modern dictatorships. The number of refugees—aliens with residence permit—at the end of World War II totalled about 135,000, the dominant nationalities being Balts, Danes, and Norwegians. Not included in this total are special groups, such as Finnish children and evacuees. Never in Sweden's history have so many people of widely divergent races and languages crossed her borders. Many of these refugees have found regular occupation and taken up permanent residence. The latest figure (1955) is 75,000.



SWEDEN AT WORK

AGRICULTURE
FORESTRY
IRON AND STEEL
"SWEDISH MODERN"
AND OTHER LIGHT MANUFACTURE
WATER POWER
COMMUNICATIONS
FOREIGN TRADE
MONEY AND BANKING
LABOR IN AGRICULTURE AND INDUSTRY
PUBLIC, PRIVATE, AND COOPERATIVE ENTERPRISE
STANDARD OF LIVING

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AGRICULTURE

The inhabitants of a Swedish village, Gammalsvenskby, on the banks of the Dnjepr in the interior of Russia, where their ancestors settled in the eighteenth century, returned to Sweden in 1929. Their first and general impression when they were re-settled on Swedish soil was that it required far harder work than the Russian.

Sweden is not a first-rate agricultural country. Really good soil is found only in relatively small and scattered areas; as a rule the soil is rather poor. But in spite of its northern latitude, the country is favored with an exceptionally mild climate because of the Gulf Stream's propitious influence. Somewhat distressing is the tendency toward drought and precipitation at times disadvantageous to the crops. The rains are ordinarily most frequent at harvest time in the late summer.

Swedish agriculture has, nevertheless, reached a high level. The average yield of wheat and sugar beets on the plains of Skåne easily bears comparison with the best agricultural regions anywhere. Sweden's average wheat yield per unit area is surpassed in Denmark, Holland, and Belgium, more than twice as large in the United States, Argentina, and Australia, but approximately equals that of Switzerland, Canada, the United

Kingdom, New Zealand, and Germany. The average yield of sugar beets is higher only in Denmark and Holland.

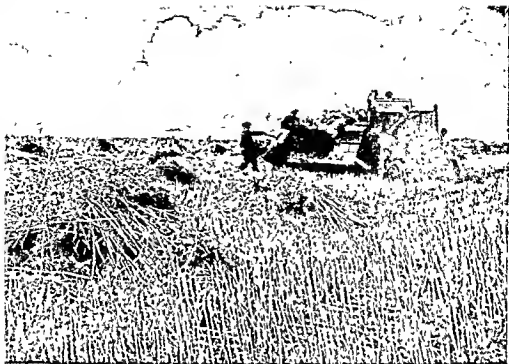
During normal times Sweden is by and large self-supporting in respect to agricultural products. However, in order to maintain a production adequate for the country, the Swedish farmer depends to a certain extent on the import of artificial fertilizer and feed concentrates. This was, of course, clearly demonstrated during the war. It has been estimated that imported fertilizer and feed account for about 15 % of the total yield. Normally only somewhat more than 20 % of Sweden's import is food, and of this a large share is claimed for coffee, cocoa, fresh fruit, tobacco, and the like.

When Sweden became isolated from the rest of the world during the second world war, the food situation was one of her many precarious problems. Largely because of intensive research, Swedish farmers were able to provide food for the population, though at times the outcome seemed in doubt. It was even possible to furnish some relief to the nation's distressed neighbors. Bread, sugar, meat, and butter were stretched into adequacy by strict rationing, a step not necessary for milk. Shortage of lard prompted large-scale cultivation of plants yielding vegetable oil.

While the yield statistics quoted above are quite favorable, the figures on the available arable land tell a different story. About 9 % of Sweden's soil is under cultivation while the British Isles have about 30 %, France 40 %, and Denmark 60 %. These figures should be viewed against the fact that such a large part of Sweden is forest land or mountainous terrain, especially in Norrland. But even there the harvests are good. To be sure, the summer is short, but during the season the crops are exposed to rather intensive sunlight almost around the clock. The three administrative districts farthest north,



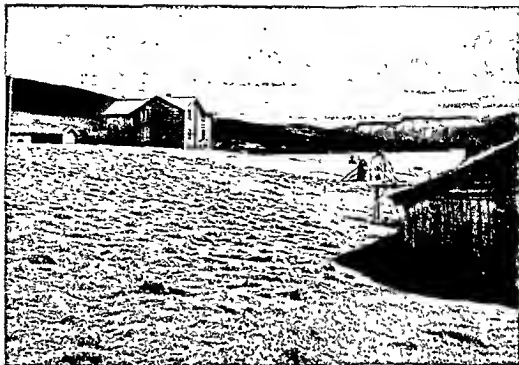
27. A Swedish farmer carrying a load of rape. Skåne. Photo by G. Lundh.



28 and 29. In southern Sweden, especially in Skåne, the country's most important agricultural districts are located. Large-scale experimental research is conducted here at such institutes as Svalöv and Weibullsholm. Among the results are the hardier grains developed for climatically less favored parts of the country. Left: A Swedish scientist at the Svalöv Agricultural Institute scrutinizes a hardy variety of clover. Photos by Gunnar M. Lager and K. W. Gullers.



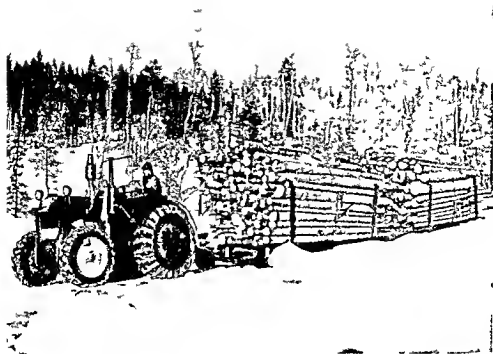
30. Farming on the plain of Östergötland. Photo by Lennart Nilsson.

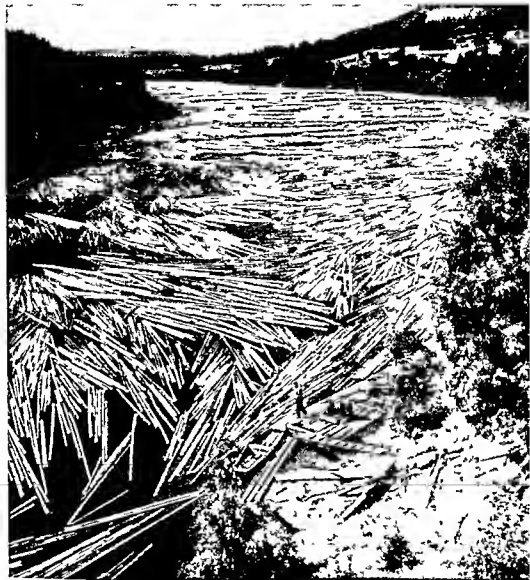


31 and 32. All the way up to the Arctic Circle, and even beyond it, the soil is cultivated in the northern mountain valleys, mostly for fodder plants and potatoes. A cultivated region in Lappland. Left Ammarnäs, where the potatoes grown on a frost-free hillock meet the needs of the entire village in respect to this important item on the Swedish menu. Photos by Gosta Lundquist.

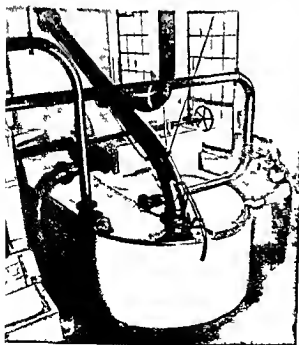
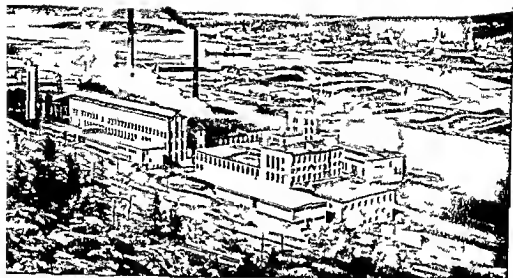


33. The frontier spirit still prevails in Norrland. Photo by Lennart Nilsson.





34 35 and 36 Much of Sweden's economic life is based on the resources of the forests. In the winter the timber is felled and brought out to the river's edge (top of opposite page) during the spring and summer it is floated down to the industrial plants at the shore. Above is the Ljunga River, which carries a large part of the raw material to the forest industries in the Sundsvall district. Lower picture, opposite page. A charcoal kiln in Smaland. Photos by Bertil Ekholz, K. W. Gullers and T. Ulmerudh.



37 and 38 Cellulose processing is Sweden's chief export industry concentrated on the Norrland coast and in central Sweden. Svartvik in the Sundsvall region on one of the Cellulose Company's plants. Left is an interior from a sulfite factory in Värmland belonging to the Billerud Company.

for instance, show the highest potato yield per acre in the whole country.

Three compensations have been found for the niggardliness of nature: hard work, expert soil chemistry, and successful plant breeding. Nowadays the hard work is somewhat eased by modern farm machinery, much of which was first introduced to the people at home by emigrants returned from the United States. The stone fences that surround so many of the Swedish fields are mute witnesses to the amount of labor expended in clearing the ground before the age of tractors. The scientific knowledge of soils and crops has been furthered by intensive education directed chiefly from the schools of agriculture. An instance of rationalization and progressive plant breeding is the estimated 60 % increase in the yield of autumn wheat. It has been estimated that plant improvement research adds an annual increment of at least \$ 20 million to farm incomes. Technical training and education have also contributed to the improvement of agriculture.

The institutes at Svalov, Weibullsholm, and Ultuna are the centers of agricultural research and study; Herman Nilsson-Ehle (d. 1949) was one of Sweden's foremost experts in this important field.

The food supply has also increased as a result of the rationalization to which Swedish agriculture has been subjected in recent years. The farmers have organized into large economic associations, which on a cooperative basis manage dairies, abattoirs, and other enterprises. The oldest of these associations date back to the 1880's. However, they did not really hit their stride until the 1930's, when the international crisis in agriculture made governmental measures to aid the farmers necessary. Far-reaching state controls of prices and conditions for the sale of agricultural products were introduced, which in turn brought about extensive organiza-

tion work carried on with the help of state subsidies. This development was further accelerated by the fact that the farmers themselves in their precarious position realized the need for united efforts. At present practically every Swedish farmer is a member of one or more of these associations. About 98 % of all milk and butter sales are handled by the dairy associations, and the majority of all deals involving animals to be slaughtered go through the farmer's own organization. To a large extent these also purchase the supplies needed by the farmers, and even procure some of the tractors and other agricultural machinery.

Mechanized farming demands areas much larger than the fenced in and ditched patches still common and intensively cultivated with rotation of crops. But the fences are coming down and the ditches laid with drainage tile, then covered. By now such drainage has been installed in more than one fourth of the acreage under cultivation. An important factor encouraging mechanization is the scarcity of farm labor. Sixty per cent of the farmers own acreage too small or otherwise unsuitable for the use of tractor-drawn machinery; consequently, they are dependent on man power. Since as much as 70 % of the farms have less than 25 acres, the new agricultural policy calls for the combining of small holdings to make possible the use of machine implements. Such an arrangement would enable the individual farmer to retain his cherished independence while reaping the advantages of large-scale farming and laborsaving, modern machinery.

Farming and cattle raising are always combined in Sweden; the average farm has five cows. During the war years, fodder conservation became imperative. The solution was siloing, formerly rare in Sweden, and by 1951 an impressive number of silos (32,600) had been constructed.

The conditions under which the farm laborers lived and

worked have long been a matter of concern. Their situation has recently been much improved by legislation and other measures; the unsatisfactory tenant farmer system has been entirely eliminated. Efforts are also being made to better the lot of the industrious but poor farmers with insufficient acreage. Many of them are far from adequately rewarded for the amount of labor expended, and different methods to increase small farm efficiency are being tried.

FORESTRY

The statement frequently encountered that Sweden is a land of forests is quite as accurate as formerly. However, in spite of this a noticeable scarcity of wood products has arisen. This was especially the case during World War II when the greatly reduced imports of coal, coke, and oil had to be replaced with equivalents from the forests. Furthermore, the Swedish forests have been in a state of development that did not permit such large annual cutting. The supplies of the primeval forests have been used up and the new stands have not quite matured as yet. A certain increase in the cutting can preferably be undertaken in southern Sweden. In Norrland, on the other hand, where the forest industries are located, the situation is less favorable. The latest survey of the crown forests in central Norrland indicates that during the next few decades cutting must be reduced to about 60 % of the present rate to prevent a threatening over-thinning, especially of trees felled for heavy timber.

The forests have always given Sweden "food and clothing, house and home," to use Martin Luther's phrase. This was truer than ever during World War II. The cattle consumed fodder produced from cellulose by chemical processes. When

the motor fuel imports were cut off, the vehicles kept rolling on gas generated from wood or charcoal as they went along. Wall board and alcohol, glue and plastics, clothing and food, a host of other products, all have been conjured out of the forests by the wizardry of science. The United States has blazed new trails in such research, and Sweden strives to keep in step and contribute to further developments. For instance, prefabricated frame houses and auxiliary buildings are today in great demand and have proved a blessing in several of the countries ravaged by the war.

Much lumber is produced in Varmland, Dalarna, and other places in central Sweden, but by far the greater part of the exports comes from Norrland. The demand for lumber and pulp has risen constantly in the world markets during the past hundred years. Sweden has improved the methods of regeneration, handling, and processing. A network of rivers, channels, and chutes has been developed for floating the logs down to the shore. The endless stream of timber is absorbed by the huge sawmills and pulp factories near the river mouths and prepared for export in a variety of semifinished or finished products. Actually the wood industry in its various aspects accounts for almost one seventh of Sweden's total production. About 40 % of the exports by value consists of forest products. Pulp and paper are the most important items, 70 % of the former and 60 % of the latter being exported. Sweden is the world's largest exporter of pulp and is surpassed only by The Soviet Union, the United States and Canada in production.

In the immediate future Sweden will probably not be able to increase appreciably the production and export of forest products because of the scarcity of the raw material. Progress must be made in the direction of more effective utilization of the raw material and toward a greater proportion of

finished goods and more refined products. Originally the resources of the Swedish forests furnished the basis for the export of timber, and later the pulp industry was developed. Perhaps the future points toward the chemical industry, and intensive research is being carried on in the laboratories. Selective plant breeding brought greatly increased values to farming, and along similar lines attempts are now being made to improve the quality of the forests. The slow growth has traditionally made Swedish timber an excellent raw material. But the supply is not inexhaustible, and rationalization is necessary. Since the forest industries are very sensitive to fluctuations in the business cycle, compensatory measures must be found, such as new ways of utilizing the available man power.

The hard work involved in logging puts its stamp on the people's life in the forest regions during the winter; driving the logs down the streams in spring and summer lends color and activity to those seasons. The working conditions of the lumberman have long constituted a serious social problem, but they have in recent years been considerably improved. Well constructed, temporary barracks are used more and more extensively, and in many places women cooks have been engaged to ensure better meals and a more proper diet. Efforts are continued to raise the standards of the lumber camps still further and make the life of the workers more agreeable.

At present, municipal and state ownership accounts for one fourth of the forests, companies own another fourth, and individuals, mostly farmers, the remaining half. When the extensive exploitation of forest resources began, it was feared that the companies would in one way or another gain possession of too large a part of the privately owned stands. Soon after the turn of the century parliament took action and by legal measures secured the farmers' share. Since the state

normally draws a considerable net profit from its forests, conservation is also a matter of national concern, and intensive research dealing with the regeneration of forests is carried on. Obvious difficulties are inherent in this study; after all, it takes a generation before the results of some experiments can be obtained.

The wealth of the forests—and of mineral deposits—is not without its problems in the far north. Efforts are made to overcome the disadvantages caused by the location and climate, efforts which still are in their early stages. For instance, compensatory measures are sought to diminish the drawbacks resulting from the isolation in widely scattered and sparsely populated settlements. More rapid and frequent communications, better educational opportunities, extended vocational training, and cheaper freight rates are some of the steps taken or planned for the benefit of those who live in this vast and rugged region.

IRON AND STEEL

In Nature's bounty to Sweden the produce of the fields and the timber of the forests are complemented by the ore from mountains and mines. This plenteous gift is found principally throughout the metal belt across central Sweden and farthest up in Norrland. Iron ore also exists in Skåne but has not yet been mined.

Unfortunately, fossil fuel deposits do not coexist in Sweden with those of ore. The nearest solution to the fuel problem would seem to be the use of pure but expensive charcoal or the importation of anthracite. But instead, because of the difference in shipping costs, the phosphoreted ore is exported to countries rich in coal, mainly England and Germany, but nowadays also to the United States. This is all the more prac-

tical because of the high quality of the ore; the iron content of the Kiruna mine runs up to 70 %, one of the highest in the world. The iron ore of Bergslagen is of lower content but unusually free from sulphur and phosphorus, making it especially suitable for the manufacture at home of high-grade iron and steel. Iron has, of course, always played an important role in Sweden's economy. In the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries she was the greatest producer in the world of this basic metal and was surpassed only when England discovered ways of using fossil coal for the smelting and processing. Sweden today not only manufactures but also imports considerable quantities of iron.

Before the war more than eight million tons of ore were extracted annually, an amount surpassed only by the United States, Russia, Germany, and France. The production of the war years was considerably lower, but in 1948 the prewar figure was again attained. In the 1950's the output has run to more than 15 million tons. The greater part, or about 90 %, of the mined ore is exported and accounts as a rule for about 10 % of the country's export revenue.

About a million tons of ore are processed each year by the native iron and steel industries. In one of Esaias Tegnér's lines, the famous Swedish poet praises "the edge of Swedish steel." While he related the phrase to earlier, warlike exploits, it applies equally well to the many peaceful products whose Swedish origin is a guarantee of quality all over the world, such as knives, razor blades, and saws.

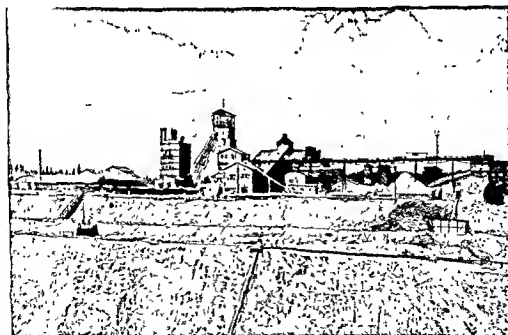
At one time Sweden was primarily an agricultural country. Today industry and manufacture support 2.9 million people, while only 1.6 million derive their livelihood from the soil. The percentage of population engaged in industry is higher only in Austria, Switzerland, Belgium, Germany, and the United Kingdom. This development is chiefly due to three

factors the quality of the raw material, high technical skill, and the contributions of Swedish inventors on which ten percent of the country's industries are based. The inventions, in turn, often depend on the quality of the native steel. C. E. ("Precision") Johansson, for instance, during several decades one of Henry Ford's closest and highest paid associates, based his ingenious slip gauges, the precision blocks, on a special Swedish steel. The same is true of Sven Wingquist's ball bearings, an invention which developed into a world industry. Swedish ball bearings were in such demand during the last war that quantities of them were fetched by daring blockade runners in English motor torpedo boats from Swedish west coast ports for the factories of the Allies. Perhaps the deliveries were agreed upon over L. M. Ericsson's telephones, the little speedboats may have been built in one of the Goteborg yards, such as the Gota Works, Eriksberg, Lindholmen, at the Kockum Shipyards in Malmo or at Uddevalla Shipyards in Uddevalla. On a peace time run they would probably have been guided by the automatic beacons invented by the Nobel Prize winner, Gustaf Dalen. The great AGA Works exploit primarily the inventions by Dalen, such as his famous sun valve. ASEA, Sweden's General Electric Company, bases much of its production on the discoveries of Jonas Wenstrom relative to the transmission of electric power. While every farmhand knows that a separator extracts the cream from the whole milk, few people would know that the inventor, Gustaf De Laval, was a Swede who also played an important part in the development of steam turbines. A number of industries have sprung from the inventions of the Ljungstrom brothers, especially in the field of steam engineering.

During the war the metal industries were largely converted to the manufacture of defense materiel. But the Bofors guns had attracted the attention of foreign ordnance departments



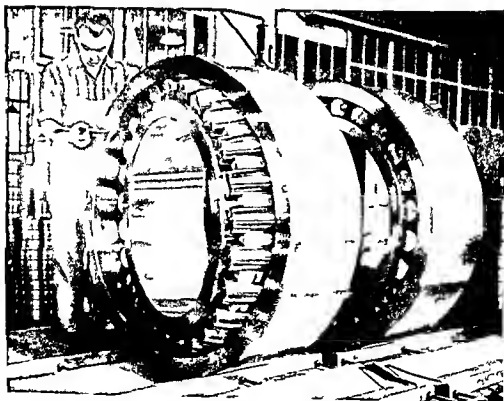
39 Papermaking machine of Stora Kopparbergs Bergslags AB, the oldest company in world Photo Stora Kopparbergs Bergslag

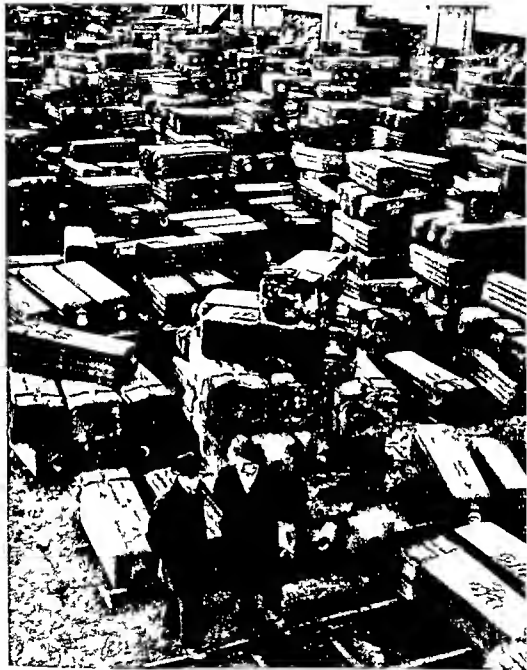


40 and 41 Above. Kiruna in the light of an arctic evening. Photo by Carl Holm Below: Surface mining at the famous Boliden mine in Vasterbotten. Photo Boliden.



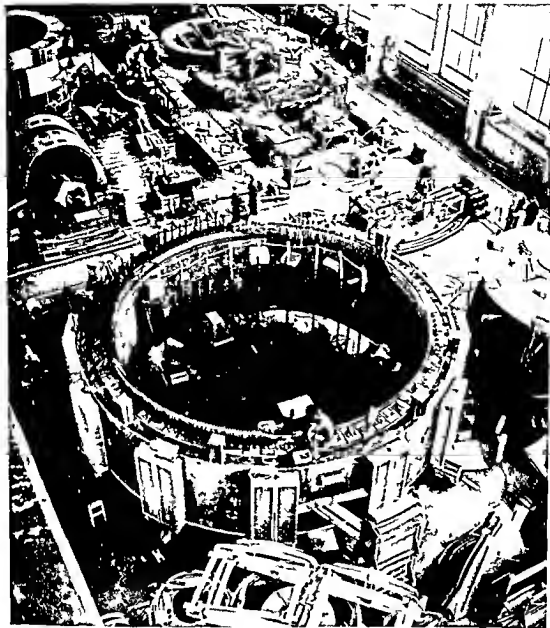
43 Swedish ball bearings manufactured at the Svenska Kullagerfabriken (SKF) in Gothenburg are well known throughout the world. Photo: SKF





45 interior from the L M Ericsson Company in Stockholm one of the most important electrical enterprises specializing in telephones Photo L M Ericsson







47. Göteborg and Malmö are centers of the Swedish ship building industry, the former with the yards of Gotaverken, Karlsberg, and Lindholmen, the latter with Kockum which is shown above. Photo by Harry Dittmer.

before that and played a significant part in the Battle of Britain as early as 1940. Bofors was formerly owned by Alfred Nobel and continues to exploit his inventions and discoveries; the gunpowder manufactured there is named after him. In line with the people's ready acceptance of scientific progress, various groups, particularly in industry, early became air-minded, and Sweden today possesses a growing aircraft industry. Its production includes such items as the Skandia passenger plane and the Safir training and sport plane. A whole series of pursuit planes, like "The Flying Barrel," have been constructed for military use. They are considered good enough in quality and performance to be favorably compared with American and Russian planes in the same classification. The Swedish automobile industry made an early start and has been especially successful in developing truck and bus models which compare favorably with America's best. The domestic production of passenger cars (Volvo, Saab) has also forged ahead a great deal in recent years.

The swift conversion of the metal industries into defense plants when the war broke out in 1939 has been matched by a smooth reconversion to peacetime production. For example, the great armament works at Bofors, which recently were immersed in ordnance manufacture, now are also engaged in the manufacture of certain medicinal products.

"SWEDISH MODERN" AND OTHER LIGHT MANUFACTURE

Most visitors to world fairs and other general expositions have probably at one time or another examined a representative display of contemporary Swedish arts and crafts. The Swedish

manner in the decorative arts, although the products cannot be said to have any particular characteristic in common, has been given the collective name of "Swedish Modern." Most popular and familiar is the graceful, carefully designed and executed glassware, leading producers of which are the glassworks at Orrefors and Kosta. The war years called for "sterner stuff" on the world markets, but with the cessation of hostilities many of these delicate products have again come into demand.

Less international in nature are the numerous and varied industries producing for home consumption, many of which work with imported raw materials. In this group belong the extensive textile, knitted goods, and clothing industries, as well as the manufacturers of rubber goods, shoes, furniture, and porcelain. Here should also be mentioned the versatile small-scale, or shop industry, since it is indicative of the people's talent for technical work and mechanics. Foremost in such activity is the province of Småland, but progress along this line is also rapid in Norrland. One observer traveling in the northern parts recently told of a village where he had found no less than thirty-five separate little factories. In a Småland community, for example, one man makes an almond grinder, another snap fasteners, a third heelplates, a fourth wooden rake pegs, etc. Not infrequently, an automatic and personally invented machine carries on while the "manufacturer" works his farm or enjoys his afternoon coffee. Manufacturers' associations are established in the various districts and extend loans at low interest to further the development of the small scale industries. These associations receive grants from the government, this being one of the ways in which enterprise is encouraged, especially in the regions where the economic life is too one sided.

WATER POWER

During the blockade of the last war Sweden's lack of coal caused a serious fuel problem. The small deposits in Skåne are normally used to fill local requirements, most of the coal being consumed by the ceramic works at Höganäs in the north-west of the province. Charcoal is expensive to prepare, and the iron industry holds priority on the amount produced.

Fortunately the exploitation of water power has made great strides since the turn of the century. During recent decades, electrification has proceeded so rapidly that, for instance, three-fourths of the Swedish farms now have electricity. The utilization of the waterfalls and rapids as energy producers is in constant progress and will be complete within the next few decades. New construction and enlargement of existing plants are now under way on a generous scale. Nine percent of Sweden's area is composed of lakes and rivers, the latter generally flowing from north to south, as has already been indicated. While the falls, as a rule, are not large, heavy and dependable drainage from the lakes makes practical the construction of sizable dams to obtain a satisfactory level.

Exploitable water power is estimated at about 80 billion kilowatt hours, of which only about one-third has been utilized so far. But the annual output of the hydroelectric plants, which in 1913 was about 1.5 billion kilowatt hours, now amounts to approximately 26 billion kilowatt hours, or seventeen times the consumption just before World War I. Eighty per cent of the total kilowatt reserves are to be found in Norrland, where the country's largest power plant, Harsprånget, is located close to the Arctic Circle. This waterfall, long a tourist attraction, has been utilized to yield 285,000 kilowatts. Still, import of oil and other fuel will always be necessary.

In southern Sweden the largest hydroelectric plant is Troll-

hattan, located about fifty miles north of Goteborg. Appropriately enough, the country's largest lake, Vanern, serves as the natural reservoir of the plant. During the summer, consumption is controlled so as to economize on and store up the water of the lake. The water supply in the Norrland rivers is relatively low in winter, and the large plant at Trollhattan then acts as a reserve supply for the north country.

The government, some municipalities, and several private companies produce electric energy but work hand in glove on distribution and rates. Of the total energy, the state plants supply 40 %, the municipalities 5 %, and private companies the remaining 55 %. Industrial concerns generating power mostly for their own use account for more than a third of the private company percentage. Transmission lines are coordinated so that each of the larger plants can supply energy to any part of Sweden.

COMMUNICATIONS

When Sweden began building railroads in earnest soon after the middle of the nineteenth century, the guiding principle was that the government was to be responsible for the country's most important railway lines, while the feeder lines were left to private enterprise. By and large this plan has been followed, but for a number of years there has been no new construction of either state or private railways. Meantime, parliament has decreed that the state will gradually take over all private lines. In 1947 the only large line remaining in private ownership was transferred to the state, which now owns about 95 % of the country's total trackage. Furthermore, the State Railways carry a much greater share of the traffic than the

48 The Norrland rivers with their rapids and falls have been utilized as an important source of power for Swedish industry and communications. Part of Krangede hydroelectric plant on the Indal River. Photo by Gosta Lundquist

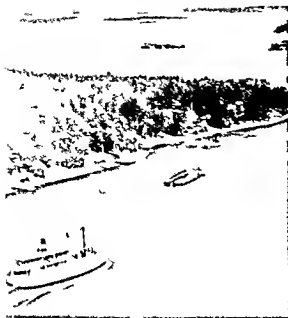




The Scandinavian Airlines System (SAS) a good example of cooperation between the Scandinavian countries has good connection with all parts of the world including a service to the North pole (Scandinavia—Los Angeles) Photo SAS

50 Electrified lines carry the greater part of the railroad traffic in Sweden. A general modernization of the rolling stock is being carried through. Photo: The State Railways.





51 and 52 A waterway and tourist route through the country is Gota Canal which connects the Baltic with the North Sea taking advantage of the many lakes and rivers. Photo by Aero-naut c (Top)

A great part of Sweden's international traffic is handled by transoceanic lines. Below the Swedish American Line's *Stockholm* leaves the Göteborg harbor for the United States.



percentage indicates, since the private lines are small and not heavily used. Sweden's railroad trackage totals over 10,000 miles, or about 2.5 yards per inhabitant. The latter figure places Sweden sixth in the world as a railroad country, the leaders being Australia, Canada, Argentina, New Zealand, and the United States. Traffic is heavy and amounts to 4 billion passenger miles, about 6 billion ton-miles of freight annually. Since the use of steam produced with imported coal has proved too expensive, the electrification of the railroad net has gone on apace. Forty-three per cent of the trackage is now electrified, but this accounts for 87 % of the total traffic, for it includes all of the main lines.

Long before the railroad age, canals played a considerable role in Sweden's communications and are still far from obsolete. The famed Gota Canal, built in the first half of the last century, crosses the country east to west, taking advantage wherever possible of the many lakes and natural waterways. An enthusiastic Englishman once called this remarkable route "the fresh-water path through romance," and the trip through the Canal has practically become a "must" for the foreign visitor. About 30,000 passages are made by ship through the various Swedish canals annually and the lock fees alone amount to one million dollars.

The sea lanes are of vital importance to modern Sweden. Since the first world war the merchant fleet has almost doubled, and the tonnage today, despite the heavy war loss of about two hundred vessels, is greater than ever before. The ships are among the most modern in the world, the majority of them motor-driven and built on Swedish ways. Before the war Sweden ranked sixth among the shipbuilding nations, but during the postwar years only Great Britain and the United States built more. The 1955 gross tonnage of 2,800,000 placed Sweden tenth among seafaring nations.

Swedish steamship companies maintain routes to all continents and also engage in much international shipping which does not touch at the home country. Since Sweden carries on such a relatively large foreign trade, shipping obviously plays a major role in her economy. Ninety-nine per cent of that trade is carried by water, and of this percentage one half in Swedish bottoms. The gross income in 1953 of the Swedish merchant fleet amounted to about 230 million dollars—an important item in the Swedish balance of trade.

The domestic airlines have now merged into a Pan-Nordic concern, The Scandinavian Airlines System (SAS), an interesting example of practical, economic cooperation among the Scandinavian countries. The company, established in 1946, includes besides Sweden also Denmark and Norway. Today SAS is one of the world's largest airlines and was the first to open regularly scheduled service on the so-called Polar Route between Europe and the American West Coast. In Sweden itself, where the distances are large, especially in the North, SAS plays an important role, and the company's flights and services extend to all five continents.

FOREIGN TRADE

Compared with other countries Sweden is very dependent on her foreign trade. In the 1918—1939 period the exports amounted to 15—20 % of the national production total, while the imports hovered around 20 %. Sweden's foreign trade is very widespread and commercial relations are maintained with almost every country in the world. The goods are likewise much diversified, especially those imported; in the exports a few goods categories are dominant.

Thus a very large part, usually 40—50 %, of the exports is composed of forest products; pulp, paper, and millwork. In this field Sweden is one of the world's largest exporters.

Another main group, though ranking below the forest products, is composed of iron ore, iron, and steel. Still another important group is produced by the machine-shop industry and the shipyards. In this category belong a number of quality products, such as ball bearings, electric motors, highest steel, turbines, etc., which are marketed all over the world. The exports also include certain food products, such as butter, pork, and eggs.

Manufactured products rank highest in the imports. Food stuffs for people and animals amount to about 20 % of the imports in normal times: grain, vegetable oils and fats, oil cake, fruit, and colonial produce, including coffee and tobacco. About 10 % is fuel: coal, coke, gasoline, and fuel oils.

Before World War II the rest of Europe was by far the most important market for Sweden's foreign trade, even though a certain trend toward the transatlantic countries could be noted. About three quarters of the exports went to European countries, while they, in turn, supplied about two thirds of the Swedish imports. Leading import country was Germany, with the United States as second. In the Swedish exports Great Britain was the chief customer and absorbed about 25 % of the total. Germany came close to being an equally important export market; the United States was also a large consumer and accounted for about 10 % of Sweden's annual exports.

During the years immediately following the war the conditions were considerably changed. Trade with Germany was at that time quite insignificant, while transatlantic trade acquired far greater importance than previously. In this period the United States was the chief supplier of goods. However, the dollar shortage soon slowed this trend; the imports from the

United States gradually decreased, while at the same time the import from Germany again began to rise rapidly.

The trade with the other European countries was also intensified, which involved Great Britain as much as anyone. Since the beginning of the 1950's there has on the whole been a rather strong tendency to return to the situation prevalent between the world wars in respect to the distribution of Sweden's foreign trade among the various countries.

MONEY AND BANKING

When toward the end of the last century Sweden was about to begin building railroads on a large scale, unthinkable without the aid of foreign capital, loans were obtained by the government, chiefly from England, France, and Germany, to finance the construction of the far-flung State Railways. An English firm was at first engaged to construct the ore railway from Luleå to Gällivare when the great ore discoveries were to be exploited, but the Swedes themselves later took over this task.

For major undertakings and emergencies, Sweden was dependent on foreign capital up to the beginning of the twentieth century. Since that time the situation has been reversed and for the past twenty-five years or so the country has been able to export capital. This policy was continued during the first three years after the war, and sizable loans, mostly in the form of commercial credits, were extended to a number of countries. In order to contribute as much as possible toward the reconstruction work in Europe, Sweden granted government credits to her neighbor countries, to England, Holland, France, and Poland. The relatively large five-year credit of

about \$ 200 million granted to the Soviets in 1946 never was fully used before expiration. The deliveries made within the agreement stopped at about \$ 100 million, or about one half of the credit extended. In addition, during and after the war Sweden has aided other countries with goods and services worth about \$ 400 million.

Together with many other European countries, though to a lesser degree, Sweden is at present in the throes of the dollar crisis. Formerly the surplus gained from exports to the Continent could be used for purchases in the United States, and thus a balance was struck. Now efforts must be directed toward a separate export-import balance with the United States.

The Swedish money unit is the *krona* (Eng. 'crown'), plural *kronor*; there are 100 öre to the *krona*. The exchange rates for the English pound and the American dollar remained nearly constant for a period of years, but the value of the *krona* was deliberately appreciated by 16.7 % in 1946. When Great Britain devalued the pound by about 31 % in the autumn of 1949, the Swedish crown followed suit. Since this shift in the exchange rates a pound corresponds to Kr. 14.47, a dollar to Kr. 5.16.

Swedish banking has a long and interesting history. Unlike the United States, for example, Sweden has only one central bank of issue. The *Riksbank*, or Bank of Sweden, has been owned by the state since 1668 and was the first occidental bank to issue paper money. Control of the Bank is vested in the *Riksdag* (Parliament), but under the democratic system the Government and the Bank naturally work together in respect to economic policies. Thus one of the chief duties of the Bank is to assist the government authorities in shaping the exchange and currency policies of the country. Its actual business activity is on a very small scale, and the direct contact with

the public is limited to such matters as housing and scholarship loans, which, by the way, play an important role in Sweden. Surplus funds of the commercial banks are carried by the Bank of Sweden in checking accounts, on which no interest is paid. In case of temporary shortage of liquid funds, the private banks may obtain credit in the Bank of Sweden through various methods, such as the rediscounting of commercial paper or by furnishing collateral. The Bank of Sweden has branch offices in all provincial capitals and in some other towns.

The commercial, privately owned banks were started early in the last century. The number of banks, at one time quite large, has gradually been decreased by mergers, and today seventeen remain. Of these, only a few are influential and maintain branches throughout the country. All in all, there are about a thousand banks and branch offices in Sweden. In 1951 the commercial banks declared assets of nearly 3 billion dollars. Paper money in circulation during the same year totalled about 4.1 billion crowns.

In addition to the commercial banks Sweden has 451 savings banks, of which at least one is found in every community of any size. They report more than 4.5 million pass-books issued, indicating that almost two-thirds of the population have savings accounts. The savings banks system dates back to 1820; the deposits are used largely for local credit needs, especially home-loan financing. The total deposits were about 8 billion crowns, in 1957. Postal savings are also popular, and the post office department reports about 4.2 million accounts. The insurance companies are, of course, also essentially savings institutions. The life insurance policies in Sweden number more than four millions with a total face value of more than twelve billion crowns in 1949, or almost 2.5 billion dollars.

LABOR IN AGRICULTURE AND INDUSTRY

The ways and means for getting the nation's work done have undergone considerable changes through the ages. In agriculture, communal efforts have been utilized, either wholly or in part, from about 500 A.D. until fairly recently, without at any time representing collectivism in the modern sense. However, more and more of the communal land came into private possession, more and more of the work was done independently by the individual farmer, and in modern times only an occasional area of grazing land remained common village property. Various circumstances had also contributed to the division of the private plots into smaller and smaller strips. In the beginning of the 19th century it was found necessary to pass the so-called Enclosure Act which, in due course, dissolved the old village communities and enabled each farmer to exchange his small, scattered parcels for one or more sizable tracts. This was the prerequisite for modern farming. But today's tractors and other modern machinery make new demands both on the farmer's budget and his acreage. As indicated previously, fences and ditches are removed to make this machinery more practical; the economic organizations of the farmers point in the same direction. This time, however, the combining of efforts is voluntary and cooperative rather than inherited and communal.

Cooperation in the farming communities involves not only large-scale purchase of needed supplies and sale of farm products, but also the acquisition and shared use of larger agricultural machinery, such as heavy tractors, threshing machines, etc. The new departure in agricultural policy toward establishing larger and more economical cultivation units has already been mentioned.

A specific feature in the life of Sweden has been the devel-

opment of labor management relations, peaceful and stable when compared with that of many other countries. A primary prerequisite for this has been the expansion of Swedish industry and its productivity, which have gradually made possible great improvements in the economic status of the employees. The workers did not reach their goals without opposition, but gradually they achieved recognition of their right to organize and to establish wages by collective bargaining. In 1898 the industrial workers formed the Confederation of Swedish Trade Unions, *Landsorganisationen*, commonly abbreviated to LO. In the early years of the labor struggle the strike was a frequently employed weapon. Later the salaried workers also formed an organization of their own, *Tjänstemännens centralorganisation*, or TCO.

The success of the unions is reflected not only in the membership of 1,384,000—in a population of 7.2 millions—but also in the wages attained. Between 1860 and 1905 the pay of a qualified industrial worker doubled, since then it has, of course, increased further. In the period 1913—1945 a lumberman's wage almost tripled. Hours and working conditions have been subject to corresponding improvements.

The formation of LO led to a similar step on the part of the employers. In 1902 the Swedish Employers' Confederation, *Svenska Arbetsgivareforeningen*, SAF, was founded for the purpose of creating a common front against the strikes. As in other countries the lockout was the principal weapon employed by management. Wage earners in the SAF member industries number 621,500 and their salaried employees 164,500.

A test of strength was not long in coming. Seven years later the pressure of an economic world crisis brought about a nation-wide general strike which became the most bitter labor-management struggle ever fought in Sweden.

This conflict caused a temporary decline in the union movement, and by and large the labor market was quiet until the early 1920's. To be sure, there were local strikes during the first world war, caused by discrepancies between wages and the cost of living. The postwar period after 1918 was relatively unsettled, and it was only in the years preceding World War II that the labor situation was truly stabilized. During the recent war both management and labor were eager to avoid open conflicts. Near the end of the European war, however, there was a shift in attitude, mostly because of declining real wages, and in the first half of 1945 a strike occurred in the metal industries. This was the greatest conflict since the general strike in 1909 and even surpassed the latter in terms of lost working days (11,300,000), but of course not in importance.

Both labor and management have increasingly turned to peaceful means of reaching agreements, even though mutual suspicion was rather strong at first. A significant innovation was the injection of government conciliators into serious labor disputes as early as 1906. Either labor or management, or both, may call for the service of such a mediator in a dispute, or the mediator may take the initiative, if a breakdown in the negotiations threatens the common interest and public good. It should be remembered, however, that this process is one of mediation, not arbitration, and a conciliator makes no awards or binding decisions. Most of the negotiations are successfully concluded by the parties themselves.

An important forward step was the Law of Collective Bargaining passed in 1928. This law also established a Labor Court, which consists of a president and six members appointed by the State. The president and two of the members must be impartial. Of the others two are nominated by SAF and other Swedish employers' organizations and two by the LO. In questions concerning salaried employees one of the LO members

must give up his seat to a representative of the TCO. The unions were opposed to the Court at first but are by now in favor of it. Differences over the interpretation of a contract, or charges that a contract has been broken, cannot be made the basis for a strike or a lockout. They must be brought before the Labor Court, whose decision is binding and final. An employer violating a contract by an attempt, say, to increase working hours, a union calling a "wildcat" strike, or even the violation by an individual employee is liable for damages. The court, the unions, and management have jointly developed significant techniques and precedents in the field of labor law. The successful operation of the Labor Court has partly prompted the statement that Swedish practices "deserve the most careful study by American observers."

An important distinction between the government conciliators and the Labor Court should be borne in mind. The former deal only with disputes relating to negotiations for a new contract but not with arbitrations, while the Court deals with differences arising from contracts already signed and in effect.

A leading characteristic of labor management relations to day is the extent to which they are governed by collective agreements. By 1954 some 28,000 contracts were in force which fixed wages, piece work rates, and other conditions for about 1,300,000 workers, i. e. practically all of Sweden's industrial labor. Even the few segments of industry not directly regulated by such agreements generally follow their standards. Thus almost all of Sweden's industry is covered by terms arrived at in collective bargaining and set down in collective agreements to which 70 % of the workers are subject. A single agreement, for example, covers the terms of employment for the metal industry of the whole nation. Obviously such a national scale of bargaining has the advantage of ensuring the

stability of an entire industry during the life of a contract; the corresponding disadvantage is that a conflict involving the contract also becomes national.

Part of the credit for the generally smooth operation of Swedish labor-management relations is ascribable to the safeguards and regulations written into the nation's law. Many aspects of working conditions, safety measures, social welfare, basic working hours, and the like are included in the legal provisions and thus removed from the scope of bargaining. The right to organize and the obligation of either party to enter into negotiations when so requested by the other are examples of principles long recognized, but they were officially included in a law passed in 1936.

But self-regulatory and cooperative efforts characterize the Swedish labor situation even more than the legal features and have given it a reputation for peaceful settlements and stability. Foreign observers have often spoken of an "ability to get along" and a "sense of community responsibility" on the part of both management and labor. Both have made it an avowed objective to handle their own affairs as much as possible and minimize the need for governmental action and regulation. With this in mind both parties met in conference at Saltsjöbaden, a seaside resort near Stockholm, in 1938. The far-reaching discussions carried on there resulted in an epochal agreement on the self-regulation of disputes, the basic principles needed to prevent unnecessary conflicts, and provisions to protect the interests of third parties. A special board for the arbitration of certain types of disagreements was also created. This document and its later supplements and amendments have become widely known as the "Saltsjöbaden agreements." The atmosphere of compromise and understanding which prevailed during these deliberations has enriched the Swedish language with the phrase "the Saltsjöbaden spirit."

Soon after the outbreak of World War II the LO and the Employers' Confederation arrived at a flexible agreement based on the cost of living index, the Index Wage Agreement. Incidentally, this method spread beyond the organized workers and soon applied to practically all wage earners. But even this development did not entirely prevent frictions. The extensive strike by the metal workers referred to above was the first one of importance in a long time. Since then only one regular strike has occurred (in the food industry, 1953), but there have been several instances of threatened work stoppage. In one case a strike threat was countered with a lockout threat, but in general the problems have been solved peaceably. In 1954 only 24,000 working days were lost because of strikes. Coordination of contract negotiations was set up in 1956 by the three major labor organizations but with the main purpose of combating inflation.

After the first world war Sweden was troubled by a serious unemployment problem. Early in 1933 the unemployed numbered over 185,000. A special government agency, now known as the Royal Labor Board, was established to deal with the problem. Meantime the situation has reversed itself, and the present problem is to procure man power rather than work.

Unemployment was practically nonexistent during the war years. The fears that it may reoccur have not yet materialized. In an attempt to forestall a threatening depression, plans have been made for financial flexibility and expansion.

In 1953 Sweden's industries employed 645 000 workers, of whom 18.6 % were women. Factories are found in every part of the country, and there are no districts of industrial concentration comparable to those in England, Germany, and the United States. New industries have sprung up where old ones have been discontinued, partly on the basis of certain local advantages but also because of the available man power.

Formerly the proximity to iron resources or water power played an important role. Many of the workers nowadays own their own homes, and no friction or real contrast exists between rural and town districts.

Swedish concerns are on the whole quite small. In the approximate total of about 16,000 only 16 % employ more than fifty workers. There are only 184 establishments with more than 500 employees. These latter concerns engage 28 % of the total number of workers.

Some of the best and most promising aspects of modern Sweden are found in the new type of industrial community which has been developed. Most large concerns have taken an exemplary interest in the working conditions of their people. The industries provide the workers with well-lighted shops, modern lunch rooms, sanitary dressing rooms, and so on.

The question of an "industrial democracy" is a notable phase of public opinion and debate at present. The moot point is to what extent the workers should share in the information about the status of the concern which employs them and participate in its management. Obviously opinions on this matter are widely divergent, but positive results of cooperation between labor and management have already been achieved.

PUBLIC, PRIVATE, AND COOPERATIVE ENTERPRISE

The part played by the state in Sweden's economic life is considerable. Government participation in business did not have to wait for the labor party's coming into power; the start had been made and the precedent established long before that. The state owns and operates most of the railroad trackage; its post office department not only handles the mails but also

operates a savings bank and a checking account service. The public telegraph and telephone networks are managed economically and efficiently by the government. Almost 40 % of the electrical energy is generated in state plants. The state is part owner in certain mines, particularly the important ore deposits in upper Norrland. Parts of the forest industry are operated by the government in connection with the extensive state forests. Up to the present the government has entered industry largely for "social" reasons. It has stepped in where an industry would otherwise have been discontinued and caused unemployment in its region, or it has erected establishments, such as the iron and steel plant in Luleå, to improve the opportunities for employment.

Several monopolies of a semi-governmental nature have been established. All tobacco goods and liquor are marketed and to a great extent manufactured by monopoly companies in which the government dominates. A nationwide restaurant chain, SARA, now exists as a branch company of the liquor monopoly. The profits from the state lottery are used for the support of various cultural projects. Farm subsidies led to a semigovernmental monopoly in the grain imports. Radio broadcasting is a semiofficial monopoly in the form of a company with the Press and the Radio Industry as share holders. The government appoints four of the seven regular members of the board. Each radio owner pays an annual fee of 4.00 dollars. Even the soccer pools are under government direction.

Thus the state is extensively engaged in business and so far mostly in what may be called "public utilities." This tendency increased during the war when the government had to extend such activities to other important fields. The necessary controls imposed on the food and fuel supplies were a government responsibility and involved extensive purchases and redistribu-

tion. Likewise the government was faced with the task of procuring raw materials for industry in general and for a good part of the defense industry necessitated by the war-induced military reorganization.

An important part of the general economic discussions revolves about the question whether the government should continue its economic expansion. The answer requires an acquaintance with the role played by private and cooperative enterprise in modern Sweden. It should be evident from the preceding descriptions of various phases of the country's economic life that private enterprise still produces all but a small part of the total goods. Actually, private manufacturing industry is responsible for 92 % of Sweden's production, the cooperatives a mere 2 %, and the government only 6 %. Free competition with its attendant advantages is in all fairness recognized and valued even by those who advocate further business ventures on the part of the state. Thus the pro or con attitude toward a "planned economy" is vital in the current political debate, but circumstances alter cases so much that even those whose general principles place them in the "con" camp prefer to decide each case on its own merits.

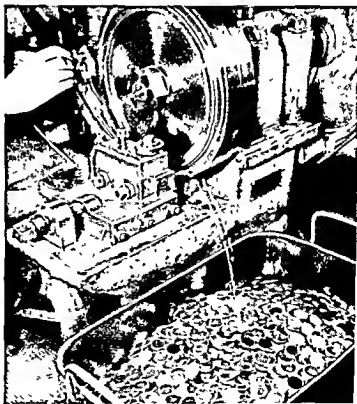
Side by side with private and public enterprise the cooperatives make a significant contribution to the economic life of the nation. The Cooperative Association, *Kooperativa Förbundet*, abbr. KF, was founded in 1899; a recent statement reports about 8,000 retail stores and over 1,000,000 members, the latter representing more than a third of the country's households. The retail trade remains the major activity of the consumer cooperatives and their turnover constitutes 11.9 % of Sweden's total. They specialize in food retailing and sell 25.8 % of all groceries bought by the consumers.

KF also operates flour mills and owns plants manufacturing margarine, shoes, rubbers, galoshes, and light bulbs. As indi-

cated above, cooperative production is not extensive but exerts a decisive influence on prices and quality of the goods just mentioned. In accordance with its constitution, the KF is neutral in respect to religion and politics. In its membership all groups of society are represented, but manual labor is quite definitely dominant. The cooperative movement has always been closely identified with the labor unions, and the latter's success in Sweden also advanced the cause of the cooperatives. However, in recent years KF has often assumed a particularly independent position versus the governing Social Democratic Party in the economic debates. However, as one of the popular movements KF cooperates in many respects with such groups as the labor and salaried workers' organizations in their role of consumers. KF is also one of the public and private institutions consulted by the government on legislative proposals. The KF management, idealistic and businesslike at the same time, is proceeding according to extensive, long-range plans and have given this movement the strong and recognized position it now holds.

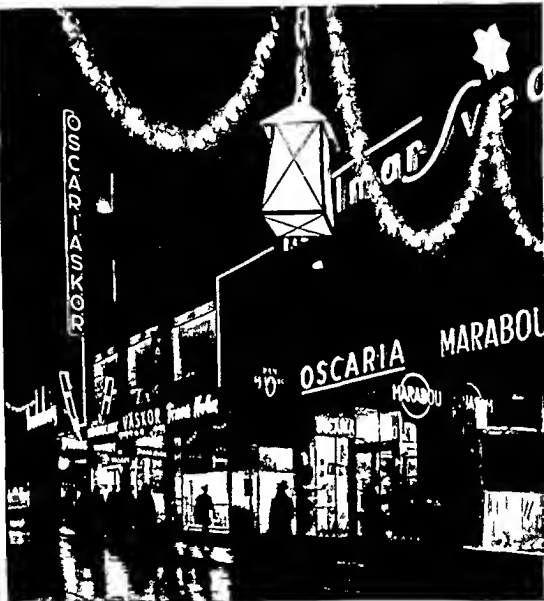
The associations which operate dairies and abattoirs, as well as the purchasing associations which procure artificial fertilizers and seed grain are typical examples of cooperation in agriculture. These producer cooperatives—not to be confused with KF; there is no affiliation—play an important role and constantly gain new adherents. In 1948, for example, the cooperative dairies produced, as already mentioned, 98 % of the total dairy products. At the present time the small industries are successfully testing and adopting the cooperative methods used by the farmers.

The municipalities are also in business, primarily in connection with public transportation and utilities, such as tramways, busses, and gasworks. Like the government monopolies, these services are often organized as companies with a certain



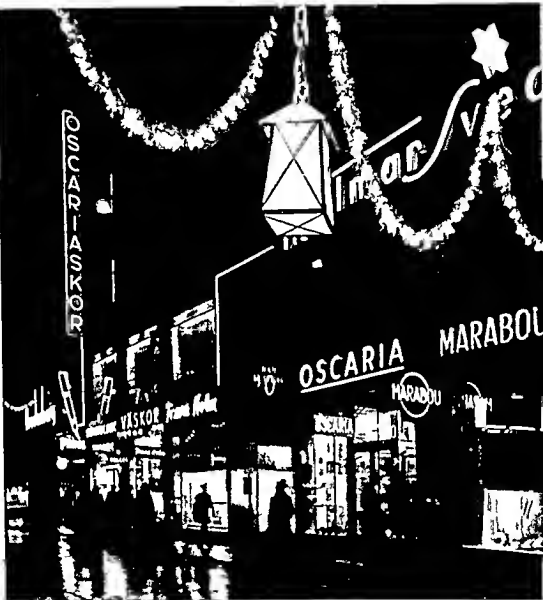
53 and 54. The Bank of Sweden, first bank in the world to issue paper money, was founded in 1668 in Stockholm and is the oldest banking institution still in operation. At top is a Swedish "ten-spot", and below is shown how newly minted one-crown pieces are polished. Photos by Lena Böklin and Lennart Nilsson.



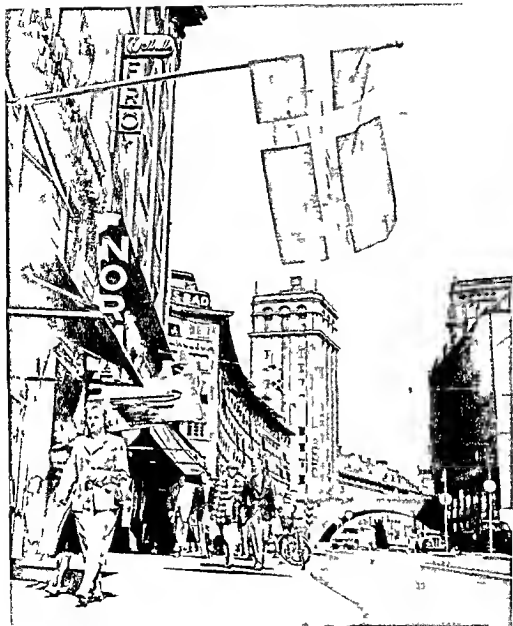


55 56 and 57 A bank office in Stockholm a grocery store and one of Stockholm's shopping streets Photos by Rotostudio (left below) and Albert Asplund (above)





55 56 and 57 A bank office in Stockholm a grocery store and one of Stockholm's shopping streets Photos by Rotostudio (left below) and Albert Asplund (above)



58 Kungsgatan (King Street) one of Stockholm's main streets Photo by I ennart Nilsson

percentage of private investors and limited dividends. An interesting example of joint action by private industries and a municipality is the Krångede hydroelectric plant, one of the country's largest and located in central Norrland, which is owned by the City of Stockholm and some of the larger industrial concerns.

The interplay of public, private, and cooperative enterprise is among the most characteristic features of Sweden today. The resulting competition stimulates greater efficiency and is a fruitful source for the lively and sometimes heated discussions on private initiative versus additional state ventures in business.

STANDARD OF LIVING

In attempting to determine whether the Swedish standard of living is high, average, or low, a foreign observer would be misled if he tried to judge by his experiences in the capital. Much progress has been made during the past fifty years in caring for the unfortunates in Sweden, and today there are very few people in straitened or poor circumstances.

International statistics indicate that Sweden compares favorably with other countries in most respects. Random items are an average life expectancy higher than anywhere, except in Norway, Holland, the United States, and New Zealand, and an infant mortality rate which is the lowest in the world.

Wage statistics also provide some of the highlights. In the period 1939—1954 the *real* annual wages of the industrial workers rose by 64 %; the pay of the lumberman in northern Sweden increased more than four times during the period 1940—55. The income of the farm workers has also increased about four times. The whitecollar workers in industry, commerce,

and communications had received an average salary increase of 65 % by 1954, as compared to 1947

The Swede likes to telephone but not as much as the American or the Icclander He often rides in an automobile and likes to dream about owning one But while every third American has a car only every sixteenth Swede owns one On the other hand, practically every grown Swede and older child has a bicycle As a consumer of coffee, however, Sweden breaks all records Tobacco is also an important item but the average Swede smokes less than half as much as the American Alcoholic drinks, on the other hand, take a larger share of the private or family budget But these and other social problems demand a separate chapter



RÉSUMÉ OF
SWEDISH HISTORY

PREHISTORIC TIMES
THE VIKING AGE AND EARLY CHRIST
THE KALMAR UNION
THE AGE OF GUSTAV VASA
GUSTAV II ADOLF
SOCIAL CRISIS
— KARL XI, FINANCIAL REORGANIZATION
KARL XII
ERA OF LIBERTY
— INTRODUCTION OF PARLIAMENTS
THE GUSTAVIAN PERIOD
CONSTITUTIONAL DEVELOPMENT
EMIGRATION AND INDUSTRY
UNIVERSAL SUFFRAGE
WORLD WAR II



59 and 60 The oldest historical monuments in Sweden are the runic stones. Often these stones were raised to commemorate famous Viking leaders and warriors. The old Hanseatic town of Visby (below) was built during the 13th and 14th centuries and has one of Europe's best preserved town walls from the Middle Ages. Photos by Gunnar Lundh and Gosta Lundquist.



PREHISTORIC TIMES
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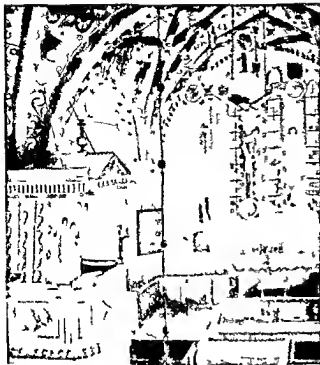


59 and 60 The oldest historical monuments in Sweden are the runic stones. Often these stones were raised to commemorate famous Viking leaders and warriors. The old Hanseatic town of Visby (below) was built during the 13th and 14th centuries and has one of Europe's best preserved town walls from the Middle Ages. Photos by Gunnar Lundh and Gosta Lundquist.

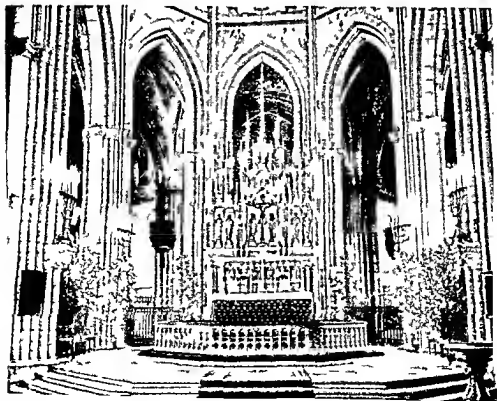




1. Saint George and the Dragon by Bernt Notke in the Stockholm Cathedral is a Swedish national monument and at the same time an exquisite example of wood sculpture from the Middle Ages. Photo by Gosta Lundquist

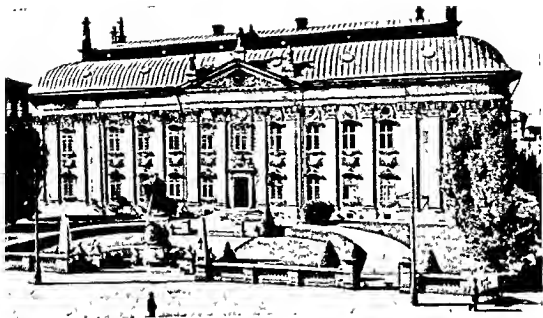


62 and 63 Harkeberga Church is a small medieval church in Uppland with beautiful wall paintings by Albertus Pictor Uppsala Cathedral below was built during the 15th century and is the archie piscopal church of Sweden Photos Royal Academy of Letturs History and Anti quities and Lennart Nilsson

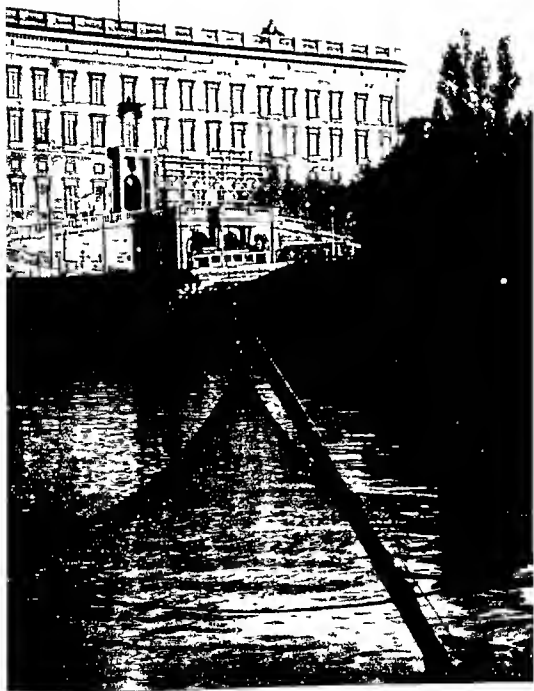


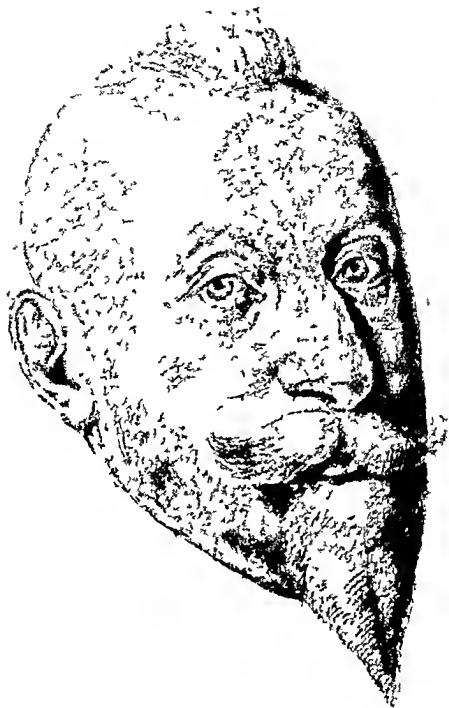


64 Gus a Vasa (1496 1560) founder of the S ed sh k ngdom Portra t from 1550 Photo
The Nat onal Museum



65 and 66. The House of the Nobility, built in the 17th century by the French architects Simon and Jean de la Vallée, father and son, is a representative building from the period. Kalmar Castle (right) with parts from the Middle Ages, was built during the 16th and 17th centuries by Gustav Vasa and his successors. Photos by Bertil Norberg and C. G. Rosenberg.





69 Queen Christina (1626-1689) at the age of 26 One of the many portraits of her made by Sébastien Bourdon Photo by the National Museum





70 71 and 72 Carl von Linné (1707-1778) one of the founders of modern botanical science
 painting by Alexander Roslin Right below Drottningholm Castle from the late 17th cen-
 tury and at top the recently restored Ilaga Pavilion erected during the second half of the
 18th century Photos by The National Museum C G Rosenberg and Gösta Lundquist





73 The founder of the still reigning dynasty, Charles XIV, one of Napoleon's marshals
Painted by François Gérard, Phot. - The National Museum

PREHISTORIC TIMES

Eons ago all of Sweden was covered by an incredibly thick ice cap. Fourteen thousand years have passed since it began to melt away in the southern parts, and about twelve thousand years ago the first primitive hunters began to follow the receding ice. Swedish geologists have made an intensive study of the annual, stratified deposits of clay left by the ice and have developed a dependable geochronic system. Thus we now know that the southernmost parts of Sweden began to emerge from the ice about 12000 B.C. This is the oldest date in Swedish history and perhaps the oldest dependable one in the history of the world.

The primitive tribes who followed the ice as it withdrew northward carried on the first and decisive struggle for a settlement on Swedish soil. About 3000 B.C. agriculture was begun. Imposing tombs made with huge blocks of stone enable us to trace the spread of this early peasant culture.

Copper and bronze became known about 1500 B.C., and the Bronze Age can be studied in the lavishly ornamented weapons and adornments which have been preserved in the soil. Common and extensive use of a metal in this early civilization was not possible until relations with countries to the south had acquainted the northerners with iron, which they learned

to extract from bog ore found on the bottom of lakes and marshes. During the first centuries A.D. the provinces around Lake Malaren and the *Suones*, i. e. Svear, residing there began to assume their leading position. The first recorded mention of the *Suones*, who were to give the whole country their name, is found in the *Germania* written by the Roman historian Tacitus in 98 A.D.

THE VIKING AGE AND EARLY CHRISTIANITY

The comparative isolation of Scandinavia was not broken until the Viking Age (700—1000 A.D.), when intrepid travelers brought back foreign goods and knowledge, new methods and new thoughts, in short, the contributions of more southerly civilizations. The coastal regions around and north of present-day Stockholm were the base of viking power and the starting point for great forays and trading expeditions—sometimes involving hundreds of ships—to the east. Whether as plunderers or merchants—and no clear distinction appears to have been made—the vikings kept up the contact between Sweden and the East (Russia, Constantinople), Sweden and Western Europe, including the British Isles and Ireland. The latter countries were the favorite goals of the men from southern Sweden who joined with Danish and Norwegian vikings, then their countrymen, in pillage, trade, or conquest.

Calmer centuries followed the viking expeditions and their tremendous display of energy. Eastern contacts ceased, and Sweden turned instead to the west and the south. Christianity gradually made headway with the aid of missions sent from England and northern Germany. Churches were built, first

of wood, then of stone. Several hundreds of the latter from the twelfth and thirteenth centuries still stand. Sweden was incorporated in the huge organization of the Roman Catholic Church. At the same time the realm became more firmly established; it included Finland and all of modern Sweden, except the provinces of Blekinge, Bohuslän, Halland, and Skåne. Rival dynasties did not succeed in breaking the fundamental unity, definite procedures for electing the rulers were established, and a Council, drawn from the foremost families of the country, took its place by the king's side. Villages were expanded and new ones founded; in each century the frontier was pushed a little farther into the wilderness. During the thirteenth century the provincial statutes were compiled in law books which remain unique in their age and clarity. By these the life of the whole province was regulated in detail from the most elevated aspects to the commonest everyday concerns: "Christ is foremost in our law, next to Him our Christian dogma and all Christians: the King, farmers and all legal residents, bishops, all men of booklearning," but also "if horse rolls or swine roots in grainfield, (owner) pays fine therefor with such grain as was sown in the field, one skep for every third rolling or every third rooting." Differentiation into social groups took place in this period; in addition to the clergy a class of nobles emerged, the latter composed of estate owners and those high in the service of kings or lords. The

to safeguard peace and personal security. Acts of violence in church, at the thing-place (council meeting), in another man's house, or against a defenseless woman made a man an outlaw without rights and property. The "law of the land" included a brief constitution in which the powers of the king, the council, and the citizens were delimited. Even in the modern word order the duties of the king could hardly be defined more succinctly than in the old text: "The King shall all justice and truth strengthen, love and preserve, all wrongs and falsehoods destroy, both by law and by his royal power."

Strangely, the first Swede of international stature was a woman. Saint Birgitta (or Bridget; 1303—1373) is the greatest medieval figure in both the religious and the literary history of Sweden. She founded a monastic order which included both monks and nuns, and the first monastery was established at Vadstena. Visionary (*Revelationes*), organizer (Order of St. Bridget), and unofficial envoy of Sweden in Rome for almost a quarter of a century, she had also found time to be a devoted wife and busy mistress of the family estates for twenty-seven years. A child-bride at thirteen, she bore her husband eight children, one of whom became Saint Catherine of Sweden.

THE KALMAR UNION

Late in the fourteenth century Queen Margareta, daughter of one king and widow of another, ruled both Denmark and Norway. A general reaction against growing German influence in the country, the Swedish king then being the German Albrekt of Mecklenburg, fear that their estates might be confiscated, and other circumstances prompted the Swedish

nobles to appeal to Margareta for help against their own king. She defeated King Albrekt in battle in 1389 and became mistress of a united Scandinavia. Negotiations conducted in the Swedish town of Kalmar in 1397 gave the union its name.

Margareta's kingdom was Europe's largest in area. As a noble experiment the unified realms showed foresight and statesmanship, but after several decades of strife it failed nevertheless. Margareta's successor in 1412 (and nominal king since 1396), Erik of Pomerania, sought to extend the royal power throughout the triple realm and fought the German princes as well as the Hanseatic League while seeking political alliances in England and elsewhere. But Sweden was dependent on the Hanseatic League, especially in respect to a market for her metals; furthermore, the country was little inclined to tolerate increased tyrannical power on the part of the king.

In the mining districts of Bergslagen the people rose in revolt under the leadership of a simple mine owner by the name of Engelbrekt. The nobles, viewing with alarm the king's bid for greater power, made common cause with him. After bitter struggles between Denmark and Sweden the Union was dissolved. During these turbulent decades in the 15th century a notable innovation was made in the Swedish political system: the *Riksdag*, or Parliament, was instituted, which on behalf of the people made important political decisions. Even the farmers were represented in this new body.

Kristian II, king of Denmark since 1513, soon became a new threat to Sweden's independence. Hope of a successful defense against the repeated attacks faded when the Swedish regent, Sten Sture the Younger, fell in one of the losing battles against the Danes in 1520. By the "Stockholm Massacre," a mass execution in the conquered capital, Kristian attempted to eliminate the leaders of the independence party and with them all opposition. Once more it appeared that a great

northern kingdom was in formation, this time by violence. But the king had underestimated the Swedish tradition of freedom.

THE AGE OF GUSTAV VASA

A revolt against the Danish king, led by a young, rather unknown relative of the Stures, Gustav Eriksson Vasa, began in Dalarna in 1520—1521. He definitely put an end to the Union and made Sweden into a national state of the type which had arisen on the Continent during the late Middle Ages. His features are familiar to every Swede and also become known to foreign visitors, for his portrait appears on all Swedish paper money.

Gustav Vasa placed the stamp of his personality on Sweden's history from 1523, when at the age of twenty-seven he was elected to the throne, and until his death in 1560. His first royal concern was the stabilization of the state finances; by resolute measures at the Västerås *Riksdag* in 1527 he created the conditions necessary for the confiscation by the state of all property in the hands of the Roman Catholic Church. Since at the end of the Middle Ages the Church held 21 % of the Swedish soil, as compared with only 5.6 % owned by the Crown, this represented an immense addition to the strength of the state. Gustav Vasa found a certain amount of justification for this measure in the Lutheran teachings which had begun to spread in the country with the full approval of the king. Gradually the Swedish Church was separated from Rome, became Lutheran in character, and was organized into a State Church which survives to this day. The decree of the Västerås Parliament established the new religious phase with the goodly

statement that "the plain and true word of God shall be preached in the realm." Simultaneously with the great confiscation of church property the king and his men reorganized the government administration and developed unprecedented efficiency. Various provinces, such as Dalarna and Småland, objected strenuously to having their local interests set aside for the common good. When they rebelled against the king, they were severely castigated. Foundations for modern literature were also laid during the reign of Gustav Vasa with a complete translation of the Bible and in the hymns and theological writings of Olaus Petri, Swedish reformer.

For half a century his sons, Erik XIV, Johan III, and Karl IX, ruled Sweden in the order named. All three were interesting, talented, but contradictory men, engrossed in the confusing international relations of the day. From the south, Denmark plotted against Sweden, while the Swedes repeatedly waged successive wars against Lübeck, Poland, and Russia. One of their more consistent efforts was to gain control over Russia's foreign trade in the Baltic Sea, to which she had no direct access. When Estonia became Swedish in 1595 this objective was partly attained, for Sweden thereby obtained considerable strength in the Baltic area and control over some of the important trade routes to Russia.

A new attempt at a north-European union was made by Sigismund, son of Johan III, who through his mother first became king of Poland, then in 1592 succeeded his father on the throne of Sweden. His Catholicism and prolonged absences in Poland caused great opposition in Sweden and paved the way for his uncle Karl to depose him in 1599. The only consequence of Sigismund's abortive enterprise was that acute enmity replaced the former alliance between the two countries. Karl remained protector of the realm and did not assume the title of King Karl IX until 1604. During the last years before

his death in 1611 Sweden was waging a losing struggle against Denmark, Poland, and Russia. The situation looked dark indeed.

GUSTAV II ADOLF

Sweden's greatest expansion grew out of the ensuing struggle for existence. Even Karl IX's campaigns against Sigismund and Poland had acquired an expansionist character, but the new conflict spread to include all of Europe in the Thirty Years' War. The House of Habsburg was in the process of crushing the Protestant princes in Germany and advanced toward the Baltic with the intent of becoming a great power also in northern Europe. Gustav Adolf decided to participate in the historic struggle. He first launched an attack against the heart of Poland and seized the most important towns in eastern Prussia, which were vital to Poland's commerce. Then he led his army into Germany against Habsburg and the Catholic League, received support from France, and in 1631 routed the famous General Tilly in the battle of Breitenfeld (near Leipzig) in Saxony. The next winter he held court in Mainz and Frankfurt a. M., marched through Bavaria in the summer of 1632, and on the 6th of November that year encountered Wallenstein, the Emperor's chief commander, at Lützen, not far from Breitenfeld. Wallenstein was forced to retreat, but Gustav Adolf fell in the battle.

An almost inevitable question presents itself as these extensive campaigns are reviewed: How could a small country like Sweden, modest in its resources, generate and maintain such military power?

Throughout the war the king had the people's approval.

Parliament, including nobles, clergy, burghers, and peasants, had been in full accord with him on the necessity of entering the war in Germany. In presenting and justifying his plans and actions before the representatives of the people the king was indefatigable. His armies were largely composed of Swedish farmers, their sons and hands. A source of financial support was the copper mine at Falun, whose exports were then in great demand throughout Europe. The political genius of Gustav II Adolf, his talent for military organization, and his advanced ideas on strategy and tactics were important, contributory factors in the success of his campaigns. In addition, the king possessed outstanding administrative ability.

When Gustav Adolf fell, his heir and only daughter Kristina was six years old. The regency was placed in the hands of a group from the upper nobility, headed by Chancellor Axel Oxenstierna, Sweden's greatest statesman. For sixteen more years the war in Germany continued. The Peace of Westphalia (1648) gave to Sweden a number of important possessions on the southern shore of the Baltic and on the North Sea, but the Polish ports had to be relinquished; in addition, the Catholic German states were to pay reparations.

Sweden's strategic position was wholly changed.—Queen Kristina was succeeded by her cousin, Karl X Gustav, who was waging war in Poland, when Denmark joined Sweden's enemies. He then departed from Poland with his army in 1658, marched through Schleswig-Holstein and forced the Danes to transfer to Sweden the provinces of Blekinge, Skåne, Halland, and Bohuslan. In a surprise move the king had led his army over the newly frozen Belts—one of history's most daring exploits—and Denmark had to relinquish her control over The Sound, main inlet to the Baltic Sea.

SOCIAL CRISIS—KARL XI's FINANCIAL REORGANIZATION

Since that time the southern provinces have remained Swedish and represent the lasting gain from the period of power politics. However, this policy also had a very negative aspect. A large portion of the monies and much of the support needed for the wars had been secured through the transfer or sale of crown lands or tax concessions to the nobility. In a country still having an economy largely operating in kind, it was necessary to resort to such means. European power politics could not, after all, be financed with taxes paid in butter and grain. The result was that the nobles ended up with the possession of about 72 % of Sweden's soil, while the Crown and the independent farmers had to be satisfied with the remaining 28 %. Those farmers who had become subject to the nobles and paid their taxes to them obviously had difficulty in maintaining any measure of independence, especially since the lords in question had acquired on the Continent a purely feudal attitude toward subordinates. Enormous as the growth was in respect to wealth and political influence on the part of the nobles, it had its justification in the brilliant contributions made by them during the war period. Nevertheless, it became a source of danger to the existence of free husbandmen as well as to the central government authorities.

Sweden's Vasa kings had not always seen eye to eye with the nobles. Gustav Vasa's three sons had severe clashes and sanguinary reckonings with them. Gustav II Adolf had maintained good cooperation with the great men of the realm, but for his daughter, Kristina, the situation was more difficult. To curb the nobles, restore order in the state finances after the wars, and assist the farmers in the struggle for their ancient freedoms combined into an immense task even for as talented

a woman ruler as Kristina. Furthermore, her personal position was changed when she secretly became a convert to Catholicism. She found herself in a complex quandary of conscience and decided to abdicate, but not until she had secured the throne for her cousin, Karl Gustav, and forestalled his being faced with increased power on the part of the nobility. The almost constant wars and his early death (1660) at the age of thirty-eight prevented Karl X Gustav too from solving the great internal problems. During the long regency for his minor son, Karl XI, the influence of the nobles grew even more. Early in Karl XI's own reign, which began in 1672, he had to lead a bitter struggle against Denmark for the retention of the southern provinces. When peace was concluded in 1679, the king began a gigantic task of reorganization reminiscent of Gustav Vasa's a century and a half earlier. This is customarily referred to as Karl XI's "reduction," i. e. by vote of Parliament the nobles were "reduced" as the Crown repossessed a large part of the estates they had obtained for themselves. At the end of this reorganization the property distribution was once more radically changed, the Crown now held 35.6 % of the soil, the nobles only 32.9 % and the independent farmers 31.5 %. In accordance with a detailed plan, the king used the income from state properties to cover all expenses of the Crown, such as the military and civil service payrolls. An important by-product of the reorganization was that the status of the free farmers was restored and secured. However, the nobles retained their extensive privileges, but their rule was replaced by that of an absolute monarch.

A few years of peace quickened the economic life of the nation. Copper had declined in importance, but iron exports had increased, and wood tar also became a major item in the shipments abroad at the time. This peaceful period gave Karl XI an opportunity to carry out his sometimes harsh but

generally beneficial reforms. They affected every phase of Swedish life: commerce, finances, defenses, legal procedures, the state church, education.

KARL XII

Nearly two decades of peace under Karl XI were followed by the last major war period in Sweden's history. Upon the death of his father in 1697, Karl XII, just past fifteen, at the urging of Parliament ascended the throne as ruling and absolute monarch.

Two years later the storm broke as Sweden was threatened by a triple attack; Russia, Poland-Saxony, and Denmark declared war, and Sweden's situation seemed as difficult as it had been a hundred years earlier. In brilliant victories—the most famous in 1700 at Narva against Russian forces ten times as great—Karl crossed the plans of the hostile coalition, eliminated Denmark, gave the Czar the setback at Narva, pursued the Polish King August through Poland, and forced the Peace of Altranstädt in 1706.

A bold expedition against Russia's heart in 1709 anticipated the trail of both Napoleon and Hitler; in each case the outcome was about the same. It led to Karl's defeat at Poltava, the capitulation of his army, and his own flight to Turkey. There he was virtually interned for years, during which he was partly successful in persuading the Turks to attack Russia. The home country held out against the extended coalition which now included Russia, Saxony, Denmark, Hanover, England, and Prussia. In 1715 the king managed to return to Sweden.

Karl pinned his hopes on the Anglo-Russian rivalry, but in the midst of complicated diplomatic maneuvers he was killed

as he besieged the Norwegian fortress of Fredriksten (near Fredrikshald) in 1718. Sweden then had to conclude a series of peace treaties which left her with few of her far-flung possessions, except most of Finland and a couple of small holdings on the south shore of the Baltic.

"ERA OF LIBERTY"—INTRODUCTION OF PARLIAMENTARISM

A total but almost bloodless revolution to establish a new constitution was the first internal move after the collapse. This document gave by far the greatest authority to Parliament, whose wishes were carried out by the king and his council. In the council the king had only two votes, and he was himself elected to the throne by Parliament.

The "Era of Liberty," as the next fifty-three years are called, has been severely criticized for its partisan animosity and political befuddlement. But it has become increasingly clear that this era was of great significance in shaping the Swedish heritage of freedom. A real parliamentary system was gradually developed, which to be sure labored under very heavy and cumbersome, juridically formulated procedures. Nevertheless, it is of great interest in many respects and a notable parallel to the English system.

Two parties, the "Hats" and the "Caps," came into being and contended for the political power. In their theories of national economy the Hats were strictly mercantilistic. Their foreign policy aimed at an alliance with France whereby they hoped to regain the foreign possessions recently lost; this led to badly prepared wars and correspondingly unfortunate outcomes.

The Caps were more restrained in respect to state subsidies in the national economy and their foreign policy strove for rapprochement with England and Russia. Toward the end of the era the Caps also gathered into their ranks the commoners in opposition to the prerogatives of the nobles.

Alternately in power—the Hats being at the helm somewhat longer—the two parties developed far-reaching assumptions regarding the authority of Parliament. “The idea that the Estates (of Parliament) may err is contrary to the fundamental law of the realm” is a sample of their claims; if the king refused to sign the council decisions, it was not unheard of that a facsimile stamp of the royal signature was used. During these years of acrid party feuds, however, a truly significant political development took place which proved of great importance to the subsequent evolution of the Swedish constitution. Considerable economic and cultural progress also distinguishes the era. Land reforms came under discussion, there was an interest in the advancement of the frontiers of science, and the Swedish press was born. Carl von Linné (Linnaeus) created his botanical classification system, and Emanuel Swedenborg his unique philosophy of religion.

THE GUSTAVIAN PERIOD

Violent struggles over the prerogatives of the nobility flared up during the last years of the Era of Liberty. The foreign policy of the Hats had cost Sweden a part of Finland. A certain weariness with the constant tug-of-war between the two parties was in evidence. All in all, a number of circumstances paved the way for a new *coup d'état*.

Gustav III, a nephew of Prussia's Frederick the Great,

ascended the throne in 1771. The following year he placed himself at the head of the forces opposed to the *status quo*, and the ensuing revolution took place without bloodshed. A new constitution accorded the king greater power, but parliamentary opposition, especially on the part of the politically powerful nobility, was not to be downed. Consequently, in the midst of a provoked and ill-conducted war with Russia, Gustav III put over a second *coup* which increased the royal prerogatives to such an extent that the next twenty years (1789—1809) are referred to as the "Gustavian Absolutism." Gustav III himself was assassinated three years later (1792) by a fanatic group of young noblemen in the opposition. A patron of literature and the arts, endowed with brilliant personal qualities, Gustav III remains one of the most captivating and colorful figures in the whole succession of Swedish rulers.

This period brought certain important reforms, among them an equalization of civil rights and a fundamental land act, but the external events became predominant. In 1805 Gustav IV Adolf, son and heir of Gustav III, had chosen to side with England in the contest for supremacy among the great powers. Thus Sweden was drawn into the struggle against Napoleon and soon found herself in an extremely precarious situation. The king took this step with an eye to England's great importance in Sweden's foreign trade and stood firm in spite of Napoleon's overwhelming success. The outcome was something resembling a catastrophe.

In the treaty of Tilsit (1807), Napoleon gave his new ally, Alexander I of Russia, free hand to proceed against Sweden, hoping to force her into the camp of England's enemies. The aim was to make the Continental Blockade against England wholly effective. As Gustav IV Adolf remained loyal to his ally, Russia fell upon Finland, which was lost in its entirety (1809). Gustav IV Adolf's ability was by no means great

enough to meet the crisis, and his temperament further emphasized the absolute nature of his office. In the eyes of the public officials, the military, and all liberty-professing citizens he became the scapegoat for the unhappy outcome and was removed in a new revolution, also in 1809, again without bloodshed. A new constitution was adopted, which in its fundamental features is still in effect, and the deposed king's uncle became ruler as Karl XIII.

CONSTITUTIONAL DEVELOPMENT

Since 1521 Sweden had undergone six major dynastic or constitutional readjustments, the last four without bloodshed. Within the same three hundred years she went through three sweeping changes of a social nature, for the most part peacefully. Gustav Vasa's confiscation of church property and Karl XI's repossession of crown lands have already been traced; the third social change spanned the years 1719—1809 and may be described as a gradual and more equitable redistribution of rights and privileges.

What the French Revolution achieved by means of numerous violent upheavals came about undramatically but quite effectively in Sweden. For example, the farmers obtained the right to purchase clear title to crown lands. Commoners could own exempt land and were admitted even to high government posts previously held only by nobles. Several of these innovations were made by Gustav III. Some archaic elements remained in the constitution and the societal structure, however, and the political struggles of the nineteenth century pivoted to a large extent around them.

In the Constitution of 1809 the attempt was made to profit

from previous experience in achieving a balance among the various authorities, king, cabinet, parliament, and government officials. The success of this attempt depended in part on the leaders involved.

Karl XIII was childless, and a successor had to be found outside the dynasty. The final choice was one of Napoleon's famous marshals, Bernadotte, who became Crown Prince Karl Johan when he set foot on Swedish soil in 1810. By having his adopted country participate in the last coalition against Napoleon, he obtained compensation of a sort for the loss of Finland. In exchange for Swedish Pomerania, the last of Sweden's possessions in northern Germany, Denmark was forced to relinquish Norway to Sweden. The Norwegians protested, chose their own king, and drew up a new constitution for themselves. They were finally compelled to accept a union with Sweden in 1814, but their virtual independence and the recently adopted constitution were both recognized. This chain of events gained considerable authority for Karl Johan, and his personal influence buttressed the royal power. On the death of the old king in 1818, the French marshal and former sergeant became Karl XIV Johan.

There was growing class consciousness on the part of the "middle class" which had emerged during the past hundred years. It included modern entrepreneurs in commerce, agriculture, and such industry as existed. Within the framework of the constitution a struggle now ensued concerning public influence on the country's administration, and liberal opinion really came to the fore in the 1840's. In the reigns of Oscar I and Karl XV—son and grandson, respectively, of Karl XIV Johan—a series of reforms were carried out. Most important among these was the change in national representation of 1865. It abolished the four Estates—nobles, clergy, burghers, and peasants—of which the Swedish Parliament had traditionally

been composed, as no longer representative of the existing social structure. Instead the *Riksdag* was to have two elected chambers. Free enterprise became a normal part of the Swedish system in 1846, free trade in the 1860's. Public schools and free education became general in 1842, and the manufacture of alcoholic liquors was restricted in 1854.

EMIGRATION AND INDUSTRIALIZATION

The greatest changes in nineteenth century Sweden are of such a nature that they cannot be traced in terms of specific dates. Since the middle of the eighteenth century the population had increased rapidly—it had approximately doubled by 1850—and the country's resources could not keep the pace. To be sure, it had been possible to modernize agriculture by means of the already mentioned land reforms of the early nineteenth century. The ancient village units, whose collective work methods did not meet modern demands, were divided by the Enclosure Act into "individually operating farms." Much new land was broken or reclaimed and work procedures were rationalized. But these gains in land and efficiency still could not keep up with a constantly growing population. A rural proletariat came into being, whose serious problems hardly permitted any solution.

This became the background for a great emigration, which began in the middle of the nineteenth century and culminated in the 1880's. The goal for most of those who left was the United States, where more space and greater opportunities beckoned. In the 1880's, a decade of agricultural depression, an alarming total of 347,000 Swedes emigrated; 46,900 departed in the peak year (1887). In America the emigrants

frequently settled all-Swedish communities, some of which still exist as such. They often sought out territory which in climate, terrain, and resources resembled the home province and thus offered similar opportunities for earning a livelihood; the preponderantly Swedish communities in north central United States are in many ways reminiscent of Sweden. The greatest concentration of Swedish emigrants settled in the area west of Lake Michigan as far out as the Rocky Mountains, from the southern edge of Kansas up to the Canadian border. Naturally, Swedes in smaller numbers are found in all parts of the United States.

Their early predecessors were the already mentioned Swedes who in 1638 established a Swedish colony, New Sweden, near the present city of Wilmington on the Delaware. A descendant of these first Swedish-Americans was John Morton, cosignatory to the Declaration of Independence.

Gradually the tide of emigration receded, largely as a result of another major change in the societal structure. The beginnings of modern industry had been in evidence as early as the middle of the nineteenth century. In the lead were the forest industries; demand for lumber from the great Swedish stands was soon found abroad, as modern, steam-powered sawmills were erected. Industrialization proceeded at a more rapid rate from about 1870 and definitely reached the front rank in the national economy around 1890. As indicated in the geographical summary, parts of ancient, agricultural Sweden became modern industrial regions. Formerly the frontier could be moved only by breaking new land or working new mines. Now, however, man could penetrate into the remotest wilderness and exploit its long-hidden resources. Added to this were the metal industries previously described and other manufacturing activity. New technological processes were at last developed which toward the end of the nineteenth century

made the formerly worthless, high-phosphorus ore of northern Sweden with its high iron content an important export staple.

Parallel with this economic revolution—the greatest in Sweden's history since the establishment of agriculture in the Stone Age—a new and extensive social change was taking place, the term "popular movements" is commonly used to describe it. The great groups of the population who did not have the suffrage—and only 95 % were entitled to vote even in the beginning of the twentieth century¹—began to seek other outlets for their energy and new ways to exert an influence on the society in which they lived. They found such outlets in the religious revival movements in the middle of the century, in the labor movement, which grew rapidly during the decades of industrialization and early embraced social democracy as its political faith, in the temperance movements, which became a great force in the social training and education of the so called lower classes, and later they turned to the cooperative movement and organized sports. In a later chapter on modern life in Sweden, we shall consider in more detail the nature of these movements and of the organizations gradually created by them.

UNIVERSAL SUFFRAGE

The social trend just mentioned and the general concern of the people with problems of national interest led to a whole series of constitutional changes and social reforms. When the union with Norway was dissolved in 1905—another major adjustment made in a peaceable and dignified manner—solution of the internal problems became even more urgent. A

franchise reform in 1907 doubled the electorate from 9.5 % to 19 % of the total population. Complete democracy with universal suffrage for men and women, making over 54 % of the citizens voters, was achieved in 1918. Political parties in the modern sense began to emerge late in the last century; they were strong and active in the early decades of the present one. Parliamentarism first came to the fore in modern times in 1905 and became definitively established in 1917. Social welfare legislation began in earnest early in the present century and started to make rapid strides along partly new lines of approach in the 1930's. Its progress will be described in more detail later. The results were achieved on the basis of a general debate in which all of the parties of the *Riksdag*—Conservatives, Liberals, and Social Democrats—participated.

Most heatedly discussed were the problems of labor and unemployment. The creation of a modern military establishment was begun toward the end of the nineteenth century but later became the subject of very conflicting opinions. Real unity of purpose was not attained until the 1930's and then under the pressure of the dictatorship to the south.

The great social and economic changes taking place since the middle of the last century were achieved along constitutional and legislative line without violent upheavals. Sometimes they were slow and deliberate but by way of compensation well considered and in harmony with the legal heritage of Sweden.

WORLD WAR II

During the second world war Sweden was placed in a difficult and delicate position. Looking back for a moment over the pre-war period, an observer would note that Sweden and

her people had been interested and loyal participants in the League of Nations during the 20's. They felt that the country should earn and maintain her place as an active member of the organization which held the promise of peace and international cooperation. Gradually, however, Sweden moved back to a line of strict neutrality, a position she had taken during the first world war. True, in the few years immediately before the new outbreak of war certain steps had been taken toward a northern or north-European bloc ("Oslo States", 1937) but they were minor in consequence. Work on the country's defenses had been under way since 1936 and was further speeded when the threat of a catastrophe became increasingly clear.

When the war actually commenced, Sweden in concurrence with the other northern countries issued a declaration of neutrality which almost immediately had to meet its first test during the Finno-Russian war in the winter 1939—1940. A strong political popular movement in favor of Finland's cause then made itself felt but did not result in any official participation in the conflict. On the other hand, a number of volunteers joined the Finnish forces, and Sweden placed extensive material aid at Finland's disposal. When later the Allies, primarily England, wished to send troops through Sweden to aid Finland (March 1940), the request was refused. This was motivated by the government's desire to avoid having the country drawn into the conflict between the great powers. Toward the end of the "winter war" Sweden undertook the role of mediator between the two belligerents.

Close on the heels of the Finno-Russian armistice came the German occupation of Denmark and the attack on Norway (April 9, 1940). German plans to attack Sweden as well were known to exist; Sweden's rearmament was not completed and her strategic situation extremely difficult. It became a serious problem to resist the German demands for permission to send

military transports over Swedish territory against the defenders of Norway. Such demands were repeatedly turned down in April and May, 1940, and only Red Cross transports to northern Norway were permitted. "Since the hostilities in Norway had ceased" the government later felt restrained to permit transit of military equipment and personnel on leave between Norway and Germany via Sweden. The government and the high command consequently at that time felt that a hopeless war with Germany was unavoidable, if the demands were refused. In many quarters the reaction of public opinion was very strong. A popular movement in behalf of Norway's cause gathered numerous supporters in the months that followed, and it may be stated that the Swedish people were deeply aware of a strain on their conscience in this tragic situation.

The government was forced to make one more major concession to the nazis. Just before the German attack on Russia in June, 1941, the transfer of a German division from Norway to Finland over Swedish territory was permitted. Further requests of that nature were refused.

The Swedish people had to realize that they were living on an almost entirely isolated and threatened, but still independent isle in the north-European sphere of German conquest. Only with great difficulty was it possible to tide the nation over the shortages, as extensive rationing was put into effect and a speedy conversion of the industries undertaken. Ships given safe conduct by both belligerent sides maintained some contact with the outside world, and a certain amount of trade was carried on with Germany. On April 9, 1940, about one half of the Swedish merchant marine was in foreign waters outside the German blockade; this tonnage was chartered to England and the United States.

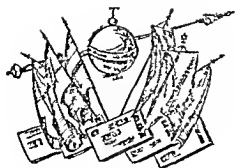
An intensive debate on the foreign policy was conducted

during this period by both the Swedish press and the citizenry. Frequently the question was whether the concessions made to the peremptory requests of the Germans had been necessary and whether still more refusals could have been risked, for many of their demands had been firmly declined time and again. These discussions repeatedly led to a steady stream of coarse invectives upon Sweden by the Nazi press.

During the final stages of the European war Sweden became increasingly active in humanitarian work. Much had, of course, been done ever since the outbreak of hostilities, thus in 1939—1940 during the winter war many Finnish children were received and cared for in Swedish homes. When the Germans attacked Norway, a stream of refugees began to flow into Sweden and finally totalled about 50,000. Some of these went on to Allied countries, around 5,800 went by air to England. Some of the Norwegians and Danes were also trained in Sweden for later military police duty, fully equipped and armed.

Large numbers of refugees from the Baltic countries to the east were also admitted during the war years. When the Nazi pogroms against Danish Jews began, approximately 7,500 found asylum in Sweden. King Gustav addressed an effective personal plea to the Nazi government in Budapest, asking for humane treatment of the Hungarian Jews. The Swedish Legation in Budapest attracted international attention as emergency passports were issued to thousands of persecuted Jews. Main-spring in this action of mercy was Raoul Wallenberg, who disappeared (January, 1945) and presumably had to give his life for this cause. After long and intricate negotiations with the Germans it became possible to extend further aid in an unexpected manner. Count Folke Bernadotte (1895—1948), a nephew of the king, organized in the spring of 1945 the removal of the Danes and Norwegians—and later prisoners of

other nationalities—from the German concentration camps and their transportation to Sweden. With a caravan of busses the Swedish Red Cross carried out the adventurous plan.



GOVERNMENT AND
POLITICAL LIFE

THE GOVERNMENT AND ITS TRADITIONS

The Constitution

The Monarchy

The Cabinet

Parliament

Central Administrative Boards

Local Government

THE LEGAL SYSTEM

POLITICAL PARTIES

THE PRESS

THE GOVERNMENT AND ITS TRADITIONS

In the preceding account of Sweden's history and economic life it has been shown that Swedish democracy is well rooted in traditions several centuries old. Ever since the first recording of the provincial laws about seven hundred years ago an uninterrupted constitutional tradition has existed. Parliament, in which the peasants also had their representatives from the very beginning, dates back to the fifteenth century. Still older is the institution of the king's council, which time and again has held its own against autocratically inclined rulers. Sweden's oldest written constitution, brief though it be, is about six hundred years old. It is included in the provincial law under the section dealing with the kingship and establishes the principles of peace and justice as valid for government authorities and individual citizen alike. Sometimes absolute monarchy, sometimes a powerful and egoistic high nobility has threatened the people's liberty. But, on the other hand, Karl XI's absolutism contributed toward the preservation of the freedom of the farmers, and the high nobility defended the free constitution against the king both during the time of the Kalmar Union and on later occasions. Each threat was voided, and time and again freedom was recaptured and re-established.

The Constitution

Sweden's earliest experience with parliamentarism occurred during a fifty-year period in the eighteenth century. It came to nought, and the modern version was not fully developed until the present century was under way. However, the Constitution of 1809—with all the amendments made from time to time—is still in force and now the oldest in Europe. To the basic Constitution Act (*Regeringsformen*) of 1809, which defines the essential organization, duties, and powers of the national government, three fundamental acts have since been added. When Marshal Bernadotte was elected Swedish crown prince, the Succession Act (*Successionsordningen*, 1810) was passed to establish the sequence of future rulers. The Freedom of the Press Act (*Tryckfrihetsförordningen*, 1799) guarantees the rights implied in its title and also grants public access to most government records and documents. It is based, with changes chiefly in formulation, on earlier acts with the same title dating back as far as 1810 and 1812. The Parliament Act (*Riksdagsordningen*, 1866) abolished the ancient four estates in favor of a bicameral body and defined the procedures and powers of the new organization.

The Swedish constitution is a legal and technical rather than a popular document. An amendment must be passed by parliament in two sessions, a general election to the Lower House intervening. If a pending amendment is passed once, the second passage may be replaced by a referendum. Some minor constitutional provisions have been revised or added almost every four years.

The Monarchy

With the exception of about fifty years of rule by regents around 1500, Sweden has always had a king in historical times.

The voice of a free people through their representatives has normally found the monarch with a willing ear; if not, that voice has often asserted itself. The earliest reference to a popular, deliberative assembly in Sweden is found in the *Travels* of Ansgar, the "Apostle of the North," in the ninth century. He also tells of the king who ruled at Birka, trading center and capital, where Ansgar freely preached the Word of God.

Gustav V, the late king, had a strong claim to recognition and admiration at home and abroad on many scores. His reign, which completed the fourth decade in December, 1947, is the longest in Sweden's history. In his long life he experienced the complete democratization of the constitution and the evolution of the modern parliamentary system in Sweden. He died on October 29, 1950, and was succeeded by his son, Gustav VI Adolf (b. 1882).

The Cabinet

The Cabinet, or State Council, is also of ancient lineage; in its oldest form it appeared as early as the thirteenth century. By the Constitution of 1634 the Cabinet was reorganized and remained largely unchanged until 1809. As already indicated, this body played a very important part in the destiny of the nation during the party rule of the Era of Liberty.

Sweden's present Cabinet is composed of a Prime Minister, eleven Department Ministers, and four Ministers without portfolio. Cabinet ministers need not be members of the *Riksdag* but in all matters have the right to address either Chamber. One or more times a week they meet in preliminary cabinet session (*statsrådsberedningen*), a practice not mentioned in the Constitution. In these, however, the attitude of the Government on all major questions is determined. The

ministers are equal in rank, and all of them participate in these preliminary meetings. The formal decisions are made in the weekly cabinet session at the Royal Palace, at which the King presides (*konselj*). The powers of the Crown are vested in the King-in-Council. Each minister proposes his departmental items for the agenda and countersigns the King's signature on decisions and legislation pertinent to his department. Only in rare and exceptional cases is the King likely to oppose the wishes of the Cabinet. This collective responsibility of the cabinet ministers is a distinctive feature of the Swedish governmental system. Ministerial government, in the sense that the department heads have the right to make independent decisions, has no legal basis, except in regard to certain routine matters. However, the functions of the government have multiplied to such an extent that the department heads have of necessity been invested with considerable powers to act independently.

On a sculptured frieze (picture No. 75) in the government building where the cabinet offices are located, *Kanslihuset*, Stig Blomberg, leading Swedish sculptor, has depicted some of the areas of departmental activity, including foreign affairs, justice, defense, social affairs, communications, finance, public worship and education, agriculture, commerce, and national economy. Incidentally, a Department of the Interior has now been instituted to handle certain areas formerly under the Department of Social Affairs.

A cabinet change occurs when the parliament majority does not share the cabinet attitude on important issues, or when a general election has indicated a shift in public opinion. Under this parliamentary system, the King asks one political party, normally the one with the majority in Parliament, to form the new government. Up to 1932 a system of minority government was in effect, since several parties, none of which

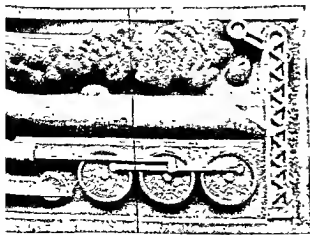
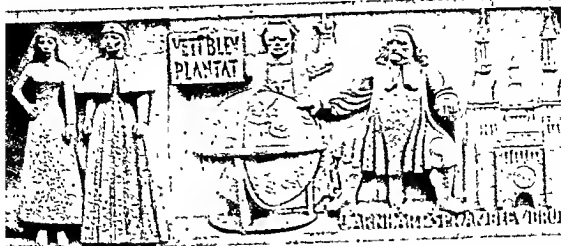
74 The Government in session King Gustav VI Adolf presiding Dag Hammarskold still held a cabinet post, when the photo was taken (third at right) Photo by Lennart Nilsson

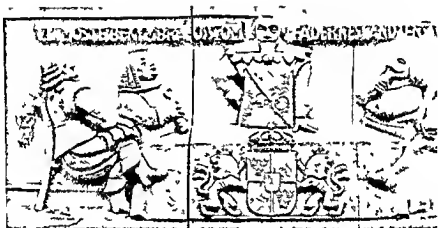
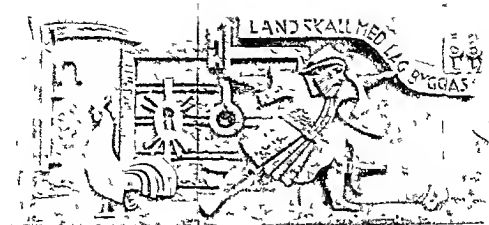


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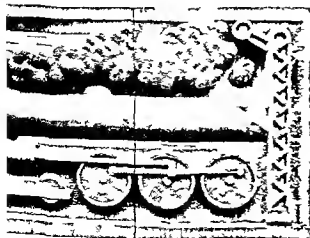
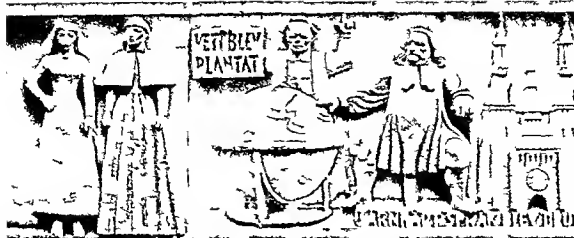
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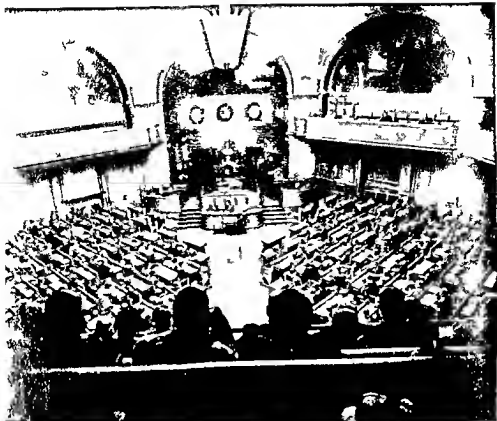
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75 Blomberg's relief in the Government Office Building symbolizing the historical development of the various departments. Reading from left top frieze symbolizes the Departments of Justice, Social Welfare, and Public Worship and Education. Center frieze The Departments of Finance and Agriculture. Bottom frieze The Departments of Commerce and Communications.





76 and 77 Interior from the
Lower House in plenum and
(right) detail from the solemn
opening of the Riksdag with the
King surrounded by members of
the Government, high civil serv-
ants and officers. Photos by Len-
nart Nilsson

occupied an absolutely dominant position, opposed each other in Parliament. Possibilities of a minority government still exist, for five political parties are active in Sweden.

From time to time Sweden has had coalition governments composed of Social Democrats and Farmer Unionists or Liberals. In time of crisis a "national" government may be organized with representatives from all parties. This was done in 1905 when the union with Norway was dissolved and again during World War II.

Parliament

The Swedish Parliament has a somewhat later origin than the Cabinet but is still one of the oldest in the world. As already mentioned, it came into being as such in the fifteenth century—1435 is the date frequently mentioned—but has older traditions, among them the provincial assemblies which elected the kings a hundred years earlier.

In its modern form, Parliament consists of two Houses or Chambers, both elected. The entire Lower House stands for election every fourth year by direct vote of men and women over twenty-one. The term of tenure in the Upper House is eight years; one eighth of the members stand for election every year by indirect vote, the electors being the county and town councils, who, in turn, are chosen in general communal elections. Proportional representation is used throughout. The minimum age for membership in both the Upper and Lower Houses is 23 years. There are 150 members in the former chamber, 230 in the latter.

In respect to occupation and social class the members of Parliament constitute a rather faithful cross-section of the general population. Professional politicians are few and play a comparatively minor role, but their number seems to be on

the increase. One cause for this trend may be the fact that in recent years Parliament has been in session the greater part of the year while formerly it convened for a spring session only.

The majority of items on the parliament agenda are submitted by the Cabinet in the form of government or "royal" proposals (*proposition*). Groups or individual members of Parliament also submit their own bills (*motion*).

Perhaps the procedure can best be illustrated by tracing an example. A member has had his attention drawn, say, to a social problem which he feels should be solved by legislation. On his own, or with some colleagues, he presents his bill, which then is referred by both Houses to a committee. The committee system, by the way, is very characteristic of the Swedish Parliament and dates back to the seventeenth century. Since most of the work is done in committee rather than in debates from the floor, a number of standing committees are maintained and special ones may be appointed to handle major problems. Members are drawn from both chambers and are, as a rule, reelected, thus gradually giving each committee a large fund of knowledge and experience in its particular area.

The proper committee studies our hypothetical proposal, gathers information, including the comments of experts, from various quarters, and then submits an opinion to Parliament. Should the committee find itself unable to complete a survey of the problem or faced with too complicated an issue, it may propose that the Cabinet be requested to have an investigation made. This is usual in most cases where the committee is favorable toward the proposal. If Parliament approves this request, the government may appoint a Royal Commission of experts or members of Parliament or a combination of both. After due investigation this body submits a report which then is transmitted to government bureaus, authorities, and organizations which might be affected by the proposal. On the basis of all

the material gathered, the government decides whether the issue in question shall be presented to Parliament. If the bill is submitted to Parliament in the form of a government proposal, the committee once more reviews the matter before Parliament makes a decision. In case the proposal passes, the Cabinet draws up the necessary statute, which then is signed by the King and countersigned by the Minister in whose department the issue was classified.

Urgent issues occur, of course, which leave no time for so deliberate a process. The procedure may be shortened but, in any case, every issue receives careful attention, and both Houses must be agreed for a decision to be reached. Financial issues rejected by the one chamber or the other may be reconsidered with minimum delay by means of a joint revote. Parliament can increase or decrease appropriations proposed by the government as well as advocate new ones for other purposes.

Thoroughness is obviously a characteristic of this parliamentary system, based as it is on the direct cooperation of all political parties. Cavers may call it dilatory, but to the average citizen it is indicative of stable procedure and fair-minded legislation.

Central Administrative Boards

In most countries the central administration is organized as a system of instruments or agencies at the disposal of the ministers and under their immediate direction. This does not, however, accurately describe Swedish institutions. Legally speaking, since the seventeenth century Sweden has had two distinct elements in the central administration: the king with his councillors (*Kungl. Maj:ts Kansli*, the Royal Chancellery; compare the U.S. Administration), and a number of separate boards or government offices (*centrala ämbetsverk*, central

administrative boards), each headed by a high officer from the civil service as director general.

The central administrative boards are of old standing in the national administration and have a number of characteristics peculiar to Sweden. They are staffed by a corps of civil servants who are appointed by the government, not elected to their posts. With the exception of top officials, they enjoy permanent tenure, but even in the case of the former removal is exceedingly rare. Within their own spheres the boards are in a sense autonomous and make their own decisions. Their independent authority is delimited in bylaws issued by the King in Council. They are not directly responsible to any individual minister but rather to the existing laws; they are not part of the departments. Only the King in Council, as a body, can reverse the decision of such a board. Opinions requested from the boards on a government proposal are made public and may be used to defeat the measure in question. In some respects this independence of the civil service is diminishing but is still important. Civil servants are eligible for Parliament and have full freedom of speech and vote in respect to the government in power.

These men and women, from the newest clerk to the director general, carry on the routine work of government and are responsible for translating the decisions of Cabinet and Parliament into action. While, for example, the Minister of Social Affairs determines policy, proposes legislation, and supervises social welfare throughout the nation, the personnel of such agencies as the Royal Social Board do the actual work of enforcing the letter and the spirit of the law. Civil servants work under the direction of cabinet ministers but are, as indicated above, in the end responsible to the laws, not to men.

As an interesting illustration of tradition in a government bureau an opinion handed down in 1926 by the Board of Ex-

chequer (*Kammarkollegium*) may be cited. It stated that "the Board finds no cause to depart from its opinion as humbly represented to Your Majesty in 1697."

Local Government

Another administrative aspect of far-reaching importance is the extensive local autonomy, which likewise dates back to ancient times. The present division into townships, or communes, evolved from the early medieval parishes, each of which had as its center the local church and the "church village." Less directly the communes go back to the local things, popular assemblies at which the citizens met even earlier to deliberate and decide upon matters of common concern.

The parish, in turn, was composed of several villages, each with a board or council. In the parish council the villages found collective expression for their desires regarding the problems of the parish as a whole and the parish church. These administrative bodies passed through periods of varying importance; one major field was the care of the poor which the councils assumed in the eighteenth century.

As modern society evolved, the communes were assigned more numerous and important functions. In the middle of the last century the public elementary schools (*folkskolor*) were established and new laws for local self-government were passed, laws which became doubly important when the communal elections were made the basis for choosing representatives to the Upper House of Parliament. Originally all issues were settled by arriving at a consensus or a compromise. From the 1860's on, the local councils used a voting system based on property; in 1918 universal and equal suffrage was introduced.

Various local agencies manage poor relief, child wel-

fare, unemployment problems, health and sanitation, building and construction, education, fire and police protection, and, in general, all communal functions. The local units have the right to tax themselves and thus provide the necessary funds. Issues within the sphere of other authorities, such as the national government, are carefully separated from those of the local bodies, but within almost every phase of their administration they carry out functions on behalf of the government. Additions to these can be made only by national legislation.

One somewhat problematic aspect of this autonomy is the variation in the economic resources of the communes.

The church parishes, each of which usually is an administrative unit in the rural areas, have remained essentially the same as in the early Middle Ages, when the recently Christianized inhabitants of a neighborhood banded together to build and support a church. In rich agricultural districts, where fewer people were required for the financing, the churches were many and the parishes small. Consequently, the communes of today in these areas (Skåne, Västergötland, Östergötland, and Gotland) are generally very small and include only a few hundred inhabitants. In spite of a recent revision of the system of rural communes, the size of these still varies from less than 1,000 to more than 15,000 inhabitants.

The differences in income level are sometimes quite large and are reflected in the local tax rates. The government attempts to ease the tax burden of certain hard-pressed communities by means of general grants-in-aid. The small units are frequently inefficient and inconvenient, but ancient and fiercely cherished traditions have made reorganization difficult. The opposition has finally given way, however, and the 1946 Parliament approved a proposal to merge the small parishes into larger units of at least 2,000 persons; units with less than 2,000 inhabitants are to be retained only in very exceptional cases.

The reorganization was completed in 1951, and should expedite considerably the work on social problems.

This aspect of local self-government and the problems involved has been the subject of much and lively public discussion, but there is no doubt about the great importance of autonomy as such. It enables men and women in towns as well as in the country to make significant contributions in public life. Every citizen is duty bound to perform conscientiously the functions entrusted to him in the elections. Frequently this kind of work has been the training school for those active in the political life of the nation.

Members of Parliament have often attained to their posts after having served their apprenticeship in the local administrations. The common efforts to serve the needs of the local unit across party lines have furthered objectivity and thoroughness. Thus thousands of men and women all over the country, who with honesty and devotion carry on their offices of trust, have become exponents of the very best in Swedish traditions. However, the increase in the amount of work required has made it more and more necessary, especially in cities and in the larger local units, to entrust the public tasks to paid officials.

Problems and functions which involve more than one commune, such as hospital care, road maintenance, education, and so forth, are referred to the district assembly, an institution established in 1862, and elected by the same constituents as other self-governing local bodies. The larger cities are outside this organization and handle such issues independently. As already indicated, the county assemblies and the councils of the larger towns are also the electoral bodies which choose the members for the Upper House of Parliament.

THE LEGAL SYSTEM

It has been emphasized time and again in previous sections that *the ancient legal traditions have exerted a great influence* on the formation of modern Sweden. They are evidenced in the oldest legal sources, the provincial laws from the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries. In some of their aspects these laws go back to heathen times, but even the oldest document, the "Older Vastgota Code," is pervaded by Christian concepts. "Land shall with law be built" is a literal phrase from one of the laws, and six hundred years later a Swedish king considered these words modern and applicable enough to use as his official motto. In olden times the peasants assembled for their local things, one in each province. The proceedings were led by a "lawman," the foremost man in the province, who knew the body of law by heart and interpreted it. Judgment was passed by the assembled multitude, and the litigants themselves participated in the execution of the penalties.

Sweden's first national codes were established in the middle of the fourteenth century, one applying to the towns, the other to the rural districts. In the main, this body of laws remained valid until replaced by the Code of 1734. The latter has been praised as "a hymn to the social philosophy of freedom and equality which prevailed in Sweden and Finland long before the concepts of modern democracy had been formulated." The subsequent development is based on that code.

The kings made great contributions both to the enactment and the administration of laws. It became a Swedish custom to "go to the King" when troublesome and involved cases occurred. A special member of the king's council who held the ancient office of *drotts* (Chief Justice) was charged with this phase of the national government. The Council, with or with-

out the king as chairman, was the highest instance, "the only court of appeal" for decisions made by the local courts.

In the seventeenth century new Appellate Courts (*hovrätter*) were established which reviewed contested decisions of the District Courts (*båradsrätter*) and City Courts (*rådhusrätter*). The king's council, or cabinet, served as the court of highest appeal, and thereby the legal system attained three levels, or even four in a number of court cases. Toward the end of the eighteenth century a Supreme Court was created which replaced the king's council as the highest judicial body. At present there are six Appellate Courts, situated in Stockholm, Jönköping, Malmö, Umeå, Göteborg, and Sundsvall.

An interesting feature of the District Courts are the seven to nine laymen in each who are elected to serve as "jurors" (*nämndemän*) and quasi as judges; in the City Courts such a "jury" (*nämnd*) serves only in serious criminal cases. The jurors are paid their travelling expenses and a per diem fee but do not at present receive a salary. They are not jurymen in the Anglo-Saxon sense but rather assistants to the judge, supplying him with information about litigants, witnesses, and local conditions which may have a bearing on the case. A majority of seven jurors out of the eight or nine present can determine the judgment or override the judge, but it seldom occurs. Regular juries are used, however, in press trials.

In addition to the legal system described above there are a number of special courts and tribunals, such as the Supreme Administrative Court (*Regeringsrätten*), dealing with appeals on questions in administration law, a special court on water rights, another concerned with land partitioning, and so forth.

Those without means are now entitled to legal process without court costs, and public legal-aid institutions set up by the local authorities assist those who cannot afford representation in court. Parliament also appoints two special High Com-

missioners as supervisors of civil and military administration, *Justitieombudsmannen* (JO) and *Militieombudsmannen* (MO), respectively, to make very certain that the laws and the rights of individuals are conscientiously observed by all officials. Any citizen may turn to these commissioners "to complain about conditions within the administration which he does not consider in accord with what is right and reasonable."

Time honored phrases are echoed in the paragraph from the Constitution Act of 1809 which states the legal heritage in condensed form and has justly been called the Magna Charta of Swedish freedom.

"The King shall strengthen and promote justice and truth, prevent and prohibit wrongs and injustice, neither destroy nor tolerate the destruction of anyone's life, honor, personal freedom, or general welfare, except by legal conviction and sentence, nor shall he deprive anyone, or allow that anyone be deprived of any property, real or movable, without due process and judgment in accordance with the laws and statutes of Sweden, nor shall he violate or allow the violation of anyone's peace in his home, nor banish anyone from one place to another, nor shall he coerce or allow the coercion of anyone's conscience, but shall protect each and every one in the free exercise of his religion, insofar as the public peace is not disturbed or general offense caused. The King shall allow everyone to be judged by the court to which he legally is subject."

POLITICAL PARTIES

In the Era of Liberty the Hats and Caps (page 137) created with their bitter feuds a lasting popular aversion toward party politics. Nevertheless, such activity was defended in the eight-

eenth century by the traveled Swedish poet Jacob Wallenberg, who drew some international parallels in the following stanza:

“Let Hats and Caps fight on, let discord’s thunder rumble:
An oak which now and then is shaken by a blast
Below the ground holds firm and fast.
When Rome its squabbles ceased she had begun to tumble,
And England gains her peak amidst dispute and strife.
Free states from party feuds draw life.”

But the memory of the misadventures in foreign affairs during the eighteenth century persisted. When the Hats and Caps retired from the stage and a new party system was in formation, this too was looked upon with definite, though gradually abating mistrust. A two-party system continued as long as the four estates existed in Parliament; the Hats and Caps had their parallels in the Conservatives and Liberals, respectively, toward the middle of the nineteenth century. Only with the establishment of the bicameral parliament did the modern party system make its groping debut in Swedish politics.

Since that time the parties have suffered many changes. At present there are five: Conservatives (*höger*), Farmers’ Union (*bondeförbundet*), People’s Party or Liberals (*folkpartiet*), Social Democrats, and Communists.

In giving a thumbnail sketch of each party, the Conservatives may be said to live up to their name fairly well but have recently become more receptive to reform proposals. They consider private ownership and enterprise a prerequisite to sound progress. State employees, businessmen, and farmers account for an appreciable share of the Conservative Party membership.

The Farmers' Union was started to further the interests of the rural districts, which are claimed to be neglected in comparison with those of the towns. Occasionally this party will put up candidates in a town election, but its members are primarily farmers.

The People's Party draws most of its adherents from the temperance movement and the nonconformist groups but also has a considerable following within other sections of the "middle class" and among the small farmers. Furthermore, a number of the leading industrialists, not to mention a large group of the intellectuals, belong to this party. The Liberals are fervent advocates of social reforms, champion civil liberties, and resist the continuing expansion of the government's business enterprises.

The Social Democrats, Sweden's labor party, are nowadays perhaps more cautious in favoring reforms—in order to gain more distribution of wealth—and have retained less of the socialist tinge than the emphasis in the party name indicates. Most of their adherents are industrial workers and employees in other economic fields, largely members of the trade unions. Gradually the party has also gained support among the "radical" elements of the normally conservative state employees and in academic circles. The party has professed to be "identical with social democracy in other countries" thus indicating more than a national philosophy in its tenets. Its "Twenty-seven Points," a postwar program, have found support even among the Communists, which, however, does not imply any great degree of compatibility between the two parties.

The Communists are, of course, strict Marxists and count their supporters mainly in the large cities and among the workers in the industrial sections of Norrland.

In this connection a mention should be made of the leading

party personalities. Admiral Arvid Lindman (1862—1936), can in the main be considered the creator of the modern Conservative Party. The founder of the modern Liberal Party and an energetic champion of parliamentarism in the early twentieth century was Karl Staaff (1860—1915), by profession a lawyer. Hjalmar Branting (1860—1925), an intellectual and originally a newspaper editor, remains a venerated figure in the Social Democratic Labor Party, to which he gave outstanding leadership from the 1890's until his death in 1925. His work was continued by Per Albin Hansson, the prime minister who died in 1946. Hansson too was a newspaperman and guided the country's destiny for fourteen years. His successor is Tage Erlander, a young intellectual who has risen rapidly to the premiership through various stages in government service. The former leader of the Farmers' Union, Axel Pehrsson-Bramstorp, is himself a farmer and headed the "Hundred Day Government" which made the only brief break in P. A. Hansson's regime. The People's Party is led by Bertil Ohlin, a professor of economics; the Conservatives by Jarl Hjalmarson, an executive director; and the Communists by Hilding Hagberg, a journalist.

Parliament's political center of gravity lies in the Lower House, of which the party leaders as a rule are members. Party affiliations are indicated for both chambers in the table below; the figures for 1948 have been included to indicate the trend during the four-year period.

Another view of party relations and shifts is obtained from the list of cabinets since 1917 given below. It should be noted, however, that most of the earlier ones on the list were minority cabinets. The country was stable enough but the political balance so sensitive that it was often necessary to juggle the party groups and govern with "shifting majorities."

Parties	Members of Parliament				Votes cast in election of	
	Upper House		Lower House		1948	1952
	1948	1955	1948	1952		
Conservatives	25	14	23	31	478 786	543 825
Farmers' Union	21	25	30	26	480 121	406 183
People's Party	16	30	57	58	882 437	974 819
Social Democrats	85	78	112	110	1 789 459	1 742 284
Communists	3	3	8	5	244 826	164 194
Total	150	150	230	230	3 875 629	3 781 305

<i>Prime Minister</i>	<i>Cabinet</i>	<i>Period of Office</i>
Nils Eden	Liberal-Social Democrats	1917—1920
Hjalmar Branting	Social Democrats	March—October 1920
Louis De Geer	Administrative	1920—1921
Oscar von Sydow	Administrative	Febr—Oct 1921
Hjalmar Branting	Social Democrats	1921—1923
Ernst Trygger	Conservatives	1923—1924
Hjalmar Branting (d 1925)	Social Democrats	1924—1926
Rickard Sandler		
Carl Gustaf Ekman	People's Party	1926—1928
Arvid Lindman	Conservatives	1928—1930
Carl Gustaf Ekman	People's Party	1930—1932
Felix Hamrin (last two months)		
Per Albin Hansson	Social Democrats	1932—1936

Axel Pehrsson-Bramstorp	Farmers' Union	Summer, 1936
Per Albin Hansson	Social Democrats and Farmers' Union	1936—1939
Per Albin Hansson	All-party Coalition, except Communists	1939—1945
Per Albin Hansson (d. 1946)	Social Democrats	1945—1951
Tage Erlander		
Tage Erlander	Social Democrats and Farmers' Union	1951—

In the general elections of 1948 there were 4.7 million voters, of whom 82.7 % went to the polls. This is the record participation so far; in 1952, the number of voters was 4.8 million, and 79.1 % went to the polls.

THE PRESS

For a century and more the Swedish press has been independent of the state in the sense that anyone has the right to publish a newspaper, that censorship is forbidden, and that the publication of a newspaper cannot be prohibited by law. The statutes contained in Swedish law which provide penalties for certain utterances, such as sacrilege, libel of government authorities, and statements offensive to public morality, have repeatedly been modified and given an increasingly lenient interpretation. In recent times the freedom of the press has generally been looked upon as an indispensable component of democracy. No attempts at restriction have been made as a result of state policy. It can without any hesitation be claimed that this civic freedom is as complete and as well protected in Sweden as in any other democracy.

Departures from the general trend of this development were in evidence only during the second world war. The freedom of the press was restricted in some respects, mainly and without doubt because of pressure from Berlin. Especially notable was the fact that in a large number of cases the government revived a statute which previously had been considered defunct. It was used to confiscate newspapers which contained attacks of an allegedly derogatory nature on the German leaders and authorities. However, the confiscations applied only to the issue or issues containing such attacks. Prohibition to publish a newspaper could not be enacted, and a censorship was not introduced, even though a constitutional change was made to pave the way for censorship regulations in case of war or imminent danger of war. The steps taken in the face of the German threat caused opposition in press and parliament, and they were retracted even before the end of the European war. It should be emphatically underscored here that the restrictions of the freedom of the press never went so far as to prevent a criticism of Germany and her government, as long as it was held within somewhat moderate bounds. In this connection it is of interest to note that the English propaganda sheet *News from Great Britain* was published in Swedish throughout the war and distributed in hundreds of thousands of copies.

According to all indications, the press of the Scandinavian countries has made extraordinarily rapid progress in our own times, especially during recent years. The newspapers have added more and more pages, many of them as a result of increased advertising. Instead of four or eight pages half a century ago the largest ones now carry between 20 and 30. In circulation the increase has been tremendous. This was particularly notable during the last war, and the number of readers then obtained has remained fairly constant. From 1942 to 1948 the total net circulation of papers issued at least twice

a week in Sweden rose from 2,486,900 copies to 3,235,400, an increase of 30 %. A number of the larger papers have doubled their circulation many times over in recent decades. *Dagens Nyheter*, at present the largest paper in Sweden, went from 25,000 copies in 1909 to 305,700 in 1955.

Some aspects of the papers appearing two or more times a week are shown in the following table. It should be emphasized, however, that the papers appearing daily or six times weekly dominate overwhelmingly in circulation. The table includes statistics covering the number of papers, their total net circulation, and party affiliation; furthermore, the number of papers and total circulation ascribable to each political party are reduced to percentages, and, finally, the percentage of voters for the party in question at the most recent election.

Swedish Newspapers 1955, first half of the year

Party	Number of Papers	Circulation	%	Percentage of Votes 1954
Conservatives	64	849 900	23 0	15.7
Farmers' Union	17	153 100	4 1	10 3
People's Party	62	1 862 000	50 4	21.7
Social Democrats	36	604 800	16.4	44 7
Communists	4	43 000	1.2	4.8
Non-politicals	33	179 100	4 9	0 1
Total	216	3 691 900	100 0	100 0

The average is one paper for every two inhabitants, indicating that almost all families subscribe to a paper and that many buy two or more.

A notable feature in Sweden, as in all the Scandinavian countries, is the important position held by the press of the

capital. The big Stockholm papers can be quickly distributed throughout the country, and they are correctly referred to as "national newspapers." Their circulation is an impressive 1,216,400, or 32 % of the total, if papers published less than six times a week are excluded. Even in other countries—England, Belgium, Holland, France—the concentration of the newspapers in the capital or the largest cities is striking. The outstanding papers in these cities can be called national in the sense that they are sold all over the country. In the United States, on the other hand, hardly any paper could be called national in this sense. This is a natural consequence of the country's tremendous size, and hence the circulation of the large American papers is proportionately lower than that in the smaller European countries.

A comparison between the circulation of the papers affiliated with the various parties and their respective number of votes in the elections gives interesting results. In regard to circulation, the party papers that may be said to represent conservative and liberal opinions are, on the whole, far ahead of the number of their adherents among the voters. Their share in circulation is almost 73 %, while their percentage of voters is only 37. This difference is most striking in the case of the liberal People's Party: the circulation of its press is 50.4 %, but its share at the polls only 21.7 %. The Social Democrats, Communists, and the Farmers' Union, on the other hand, have a relatively small representation in newspapers.

To a large extent the "overrepresentation" in the press of certain parties is ascribable to their having larger papers than the others, i. e. the differences among the parties apply primarily to circulation, not to the number of papers published. The Social Democratic papers in Sweden are of average size, but the People's Party especially is represented by newspapers with exceptionally large circulation.

In these respects the Scandinavian press does not to any remarkable extent differ from that of other countries. For instance, in 1954 the United States had 1,765 newspapers with a total circulation of more than 55 millions, i. e. in proportion to the population somewhat fewer papers but about the same circulation. A similar situation is found in most European countries, except in England, where there are relatively few papers with exceptionally large circulation. In non-Scandinavian countries, like in Sweden, the Socialist and Communist press seems as a rule to be weaker than the number of voters for the respective parties would indicate.

In respect to ownership it may be said that the non-socialist papers, excepting some of those adhering to the Farmers' Union, are in the hands of publishing companies or individual owners, a fact especially true of the large non-socialist papers. However, the papers in this category are in some cases owned by organizations, mostly political, or occasionally by foundations established to guarantee the existence of the newspaper in question and assure its independence. What is thus generally true of the non-socialist press is the exception among the Social Democrat and Communist newspapers. In Sweden, as in the other northern countries, they are almost exclusively established by the party or its affiliated organizations, primarily those of the labor movement. Consequently, these papers are, essentially, the organs of a political party, their chief aim being to carry on propaganda for this party.

From the foregoing it is evident that when a given paper is called liberal, another social democratic, their affiliation with the respective party may frequently be entirely different in nature. A number of the non-socialist newspapers are first and foremost directed toward news coverage, information, and leisure reading. The party affiliation merely means that in general, and especially at election time, they support their

party, while the leftist papers are much more constantly aligned for political work.

Thus the non-socialist press is largely independent in its relation to party leadership and organizations. But what is the position of the paper, or rather its editor-in-chief, to the owners? In many cases, especially those of smaller papers, this problem does not exist, since the owner and the editor are one and the same person; a number of Swedish journalists have at an early age started work with a newspaper which they have gradually taken over and have now been identified with for decades. The problem is of importance especially in the case of the larger newspapers, owned either by companies or by individuals who are not engaged, at least not primarily, in work on the paper and do not in any case write for it. In this connection certain tendencies have lately become particularly evident in England and the United States which are generally looked upon as undesirable. A concern, sometimes dominated by a single individual, owns a chain of newspapers which are centrally managed and whose editors must in effect write according to given directions. It is unlikely that such a situation would be paralleled in the Swedish press, where it is taken for granted throughout that the editor-in-chief is the real head of the paper.

In Stockholm the Social Democratic views are expressed in *Morgon-Tidningen*, those of the People's Party, though with varying slants, in *Dagens Nyheter*, *Stockholms-Tidningen*, and *Svenska Morgonbladet*. The Conservatives are represented by *Stenska Dagbladet* and the Communists by *Ny Dag*. All of these are morning papers. There are three afternoon papers: *Aftonbladet* and *Expressen* are largely mouthpieces of the People's Party; *Aftontidningen* is Social Democratic, supported by the trade unions. The Farmers' Union has no leading paper such as those of other parties in the capital,

which is understandable enough in view of its membership, but *Skånska Dagbladet*, published in Malmö, is considered its standard-bearer.

Of the newspapers published outside the capital, mention may be made of *Göteborgs-Posten*, a People's Party organ, which vies with *Dagens Nyheter* and the evening paper *Expressen*, both generally supporting the People's Party, for the largest circulation among the country's newspapers. Another leading paper of the Social Democrats, *Ny Tid*, is published in Göteborg, a third, *Arbetet*, in Malmö. The latter city is also the home of the great Conservative newspaper *Sydsvenska Dagbladet Snällposten*. Sparsely populated Norrland also boasts several good newspapers. The largest are *Västerbottens-Kuriren* in Umeå and *Sundsvalls Tidning* in Sundsvall, (People's Party), *Östersunds-Posten* in Östersund (Conservatives), and *Norrländska Socialdemokraten* in Boden. The only bilingual paper is *Haparanda-bladet*, which is also printed in Finnish on account of the large population element speaking that language in the nearby boundary regions.

The political debate is largely confined to the press. Reports on the deliberations in Parliament are constantly decreasing in importance, mainly because those on more vital issues would merely repeat views and arguments already aired in the press. Speeches and other political activities reach a larger public by being carried or reported on in the papers. Only the radio with its lectures and debates is comparable to the press in these respects, but in the northern countries it has been relatively little utilized as a political instrument, so that the position of the press has not been seriously affected.

An important fact is that the discussions carried on among the papers from various political camps are particularly lively in Scandinavia. Especially in Norway and Sweden, other newspapers are regularly quoted as part of the news coverage, then

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commended or criticized. A not inconsiderable part of the editorials is devoted to polemics with other papers; in the smaller towns where two newsorgans with diametrically opposed political views may struggle for dominance, such polemics occasionally assume unreasonably large proportions. On the whole, however, this constant battle among the papers is undoubtedly an important factor in maintaining the public's interest in politics and in giving the citizenry a knowledge of the significant differences in opinion. The tone in these debates has become sharper in recent years—particularly in Sweden since the formation of a wholly Social Democratic cabinet in 1945—but it is incomparably more objective and polite than it was a few decades ago.

In addition to the newspapers Sweden has, of course, weekly news and pictorial magazines, learned and professional journals, and periodicals dealing with industry and business in their various aspects. However, in the public debates and to a large extent in the discussions on cultural subjects the newspapers play a far greater role than the periodicals, which on the whole are insignificant, aside from the numerous publications for light reading and amusement.



SOCIAL WELFARE,
EDUCATION, AND POPULAR
MOVEMENTS

ENLIGHTENED DEMOCRACY

SOCIAL WELFARE

EDUCATION

POPULAR MOVEMENTS

SPORTS AND GYMNASTICS

ENLIGHTENED DEMOCRACY

Greater knowledge and more extensive schooling are prerequisite for a vigorous and alert democracy in which the people examine issues and express opinions, going to the polls, as it were, every day. "He who will may try before he judges" is a pithy line from Esaias Tegnér, one of Sweden's classic poets. An essential objective of democracy is to give every man and woman the opportunity to "try" the issues, weigh them intelligently, and form independent conclusions without interference or influence from other quarters.

Public issues become a part of the people themselves if they feel that as citizens they are personally concerned in each, a feeling developed by proper education and training in analytical, independent judgment. These are the principles that form the background of social welfare, education, and general social activities in Sweden.

SOCIAL WELFARE

Swedish progress in social security has received flattering attention from abroad. Generous observers from England have compared Sweden's measures favorably with those of their own country, New Zealand, and Australia; Americans have

been free with their praises and to an extent consider Sweden both a model country and a proving ground for social reforms. When considering such comparisons and appraisals it should be remembered that Sweden has profited from a longer period of peaceful development than most countries and that in Sweden the scale is small, conditions fairly uniform, and the population quite homogenous.

Some of the fundamental principles in Sweden's social legislation can be traced back a couple of centuries. Beginning in 1763 each parish was required to care for its own aged, infirm, and otherwise needy people, the costs to be covered by local taxation. Public health officers have been employed for three centuries, and public hospitals have been operated since the middle of the 18th century.

Today's efforts are directed more and more toward erasing the old concept of poor relief. Social insurance is the advocated replacement. Preventive aid is considered most effective; society is to give its needy "help to help themselves." This trend has been accelerated as a result of the industrialization, which brought in its wake a number of new problems, such as those concerned with working hours, child labor, women workers, industrial safety, the right of workers to organize and bargain collectively.

Some of these issues were faced as early as the 1880's, but the sociopolitical controversies and reforms did not gather real momentum until after the turn of the century. When the suffrage was extended in 1907—1909, the path was cleared for general old-age and invalidity pensions as well as protective laws for labor.

To start with *social insurance*, the universal *old-age pensions* are in most cases sufficient to assure the aged a decent living. Although local and individual conditions differ with respect to pensions, it is not unusual for a married couple with no

other sources of income to receive a pension equal to about half a normal income, which, furthermore, is not subject to the relatively heavy taxes levied on an earned income. (The basic old-age pension at 67, irrespective of income, is 2,100 kronor (\$407) a year for a single person, 3,360 kronor (\$651) for a married couple. For pensioners with no income or only moderate income from other sources, the pension is supplemented by municipal allowances. In high-cost rural areas and in the towns these supplements often amount to 500—1,000 kronor (\$97—194) annually. In Stockholm the highest pension is 4,000 kronor (\$775) for a single person and 5,400 kronor (\$1,050) for a married couple.)

The *workmen's compensation insurance* covers all employed and its benefits are in most cases adequate for the preservation of the level of living of the injured and his family. For invalids not injured in connection with their employment the pensions are the same as the old-age pensions, subject, however, to an income check. The *unemployment insurance*, which is in principle voluntary, covers the majority of those exposed to risks of unemployment and gives daily allowances comparable to those of the *compulsory health insurance*. This latter insurance covers the whole population and has taken over most, but not all, of the doctors' fees, the travel expenses of the sick, a part of the costs of medicine, and the total cost of hospital treatment. It also provides daily sick benefits covering a high percentage of the income lost. In a typical two-week illness the allowances cover two-thirds of the income lost for an unmarried person with no dependents, while the compensation rate for the married is higher.

Although a totally "socialized medicine" has never been introduced, practically all hospitals are operated by the public authorities. The bulk of the hospital costs are financed with public funds. The general idea behind this organization of the

health services is that the medical care required should be put at the disposal of anybody who for medical reasons is in need of it from the moment when he receives the care and in many cases faces a difficult economic situation.

It is, however, of primary importance to stress that income security is not considered adequately guaranteed only by means of social insurance. The full employment program is the cornerstone of the security system. Thus social welfare policy becomes a part of the general economic policy, one of whose primary aims is to maintain full employment. This should be achieved under a system which leaves wage fixing strictly to labor and management, both well organized, without government interference other than recommendations. The economic policy of the postwar period, which has been subject to much deeper differences of opinion within the nation than the social welfare policy, has up to now succeeded in this respect. But it should not be claimed that this has been attained easily or without considerable difficulties.

Some measures aim towards distributing over the whole population the maintenance cost of the children, in much the same way as all the aged are provided for. An earlier system of tax deductions for families with children gave, in effect, to higher income groups a substantial contribution from the community to the upbringing of their children, while the lowest income groups, less subject to taxes, received little or nothing. Today all the nation's children under 16 receive the same allowance, which, however, by no means equals the full cost of the maintenance of a child. Other general measures for the benefit of the children are free meals while at school, free school books and supplies, and free dental care.

Prenatal examinations and care are provided free to all expectant mothers, as is the periodic health examination of the children. The *general maternity insurance* provides for all

mothers totally free confinement services and a cash allowance of 270 kronor (\$52). To this sum a daily allowance for up to 90 days is added, if the mother is gainfully employed, a provision similarly made in health insurance to compensate for loss of work time and earnings. Needy mothers, married or unmarried, are entitled to special supplementary grants for maternity equipment and layette. Most Swedish children (98 %) are delivered in hospitals.

Some measures in favor of families with children are subject to an income check, which, however, is very liberal as a rule and has no resemblance to the prying search employed in connection with older forms of public assistance. Based on the recipient's income are the considerable housing subsidies for families with two or more children, which make it possible for most such families of limited means to rent modern high-standard dwellings or to build their own homes. (For a family with two or three children the rent rebate amounts to some 20—25 % of the rent of a modern high-standard dwelling.) An income check is also made in the case of the substantial scholarships for higher education and vocational training which have contributed considerably to the equalizing of educational opportunities. Scholarships for youngsters of the rural districts who have to go to school in towns, if they wish to obtain higher education, are granted without an income check.

Families with an income below the average also receive free vacation travel for mothers and children. Their expenses for social home-help services and for the children's attendance at day nurseries, summer camps, and the like are reduced by public subsidies to little or nothing.

The background for measures of this kind is in part the so-called repopulation crisis of the 1930's, which lowered the birth rate and gave rise to a more or less wellfounded fear that

a population decrease was in sight. Population policy in Sweden has, however, not been governed by the idea of rewarding, in terms of cash, the conception of children whether wanted or not. The main idea behind these measures has been that children should not cause a serious lowering of the living standards of a family. Nor should the opportunities of the children to utilize their talents and energy depend on the financial status of the family. If the natural wish for children is supported by common efforts from the whole people to raise the coming generation, there should be no decrease in the birth rate.

In keeping with this view, planned parenthood is fully accepted in Sweden. Possibilities to obtain knowledge of contraceptives are put at the disposal of the people with public support. In order to combat criminal abortion, various efforts are made to help mothers complete—and wish to complete—an unintended pregnancy. On the other hand, medical authorities are entitled, under special circumstances defined by the law, to grant an application of an expectant mother to have an abortion performed by a doctor.

The housing policy does more than provide housing subsidies for families with children. As a matter of fact, Sweden has taken over the full responsibility for the supply of housing. The municipalities are bound by law to plan an adequate production of housing, not only for lower income groups but for all inhabitants, and the State is supporting most of that production by means of advantageous loans. Certain subsidies of a social character are also given, especially in creating housing for the pensioners. Housing is consequently in a process of gradual municipalization and private profit is being progressively abolished, even though the actual house construction as a rule is left to private contractors. Rent control, another phase of the housing policy, has prevented rents from rising more than is justified by higher maintenance costs.

Together these measures have brought about a great upgrading of the housing standard for lower and middle income groups. But the government has also had to face the resulting political responsibility and criticism, for the increased housing demand—caused by immigration, depopulation of rural areas, and other population trends—has not yet been fully met, although the shortage is largely confined to big towns.

It may be said that hunger and material distress have been virtually eradicated in Sweden. By means of social insurance and general welfare measures the scope of the old-style poor relief or public assistance to the needy has been limited to a few categories of cases too complicated or too rare to be covered under more general provisions. Such aid has successively become totally out-of-date and what remained by way of legislation was further revised by Parliament in 1955.

Revisions and improvements in other fields of social welfare are still needed. The achievements already made have focussed the attention on many of the individual's needs which cannot be adequately met without community action. The care of certain groups, such as the handicapped, is still not satisfactory. The problems of the individual's adjustment to community life and working conditions in a modern industrialized society have created a need for personal, casework assistance which still is met only to a limited extent. How to make good use of leisure time is another question which cannot be satisfactorily answered without new community activities. Many problems affecting the growing number of aged people are still unsolved.

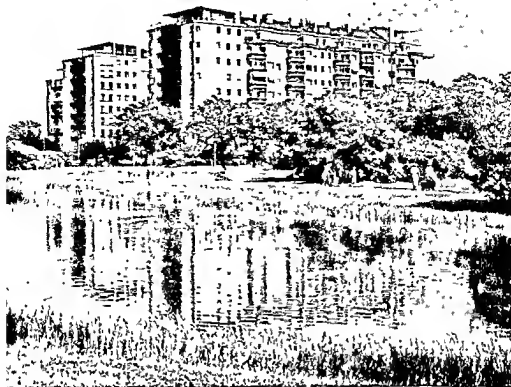
Furthermore, in some fields a lack of equality exists which in many quarters is considered out of keeping with the Swedish social ideology. In 1953 the annual minimum three-week vacation with pay went into effect for all workers while the earlier legislation stipulated only a two-week minimum.

At present special attention is given to the question of *employment pensions*, a field in which the white-collar group is far better established than other workers. A plan to increase the general old-age pensions by supplementary pensions for employed persons is under consideration, the amount of the supplement to be proportionate to the income of the recipient at the time of retirement. Much discussion is also devoted to the question of *working hours*. The 48-hour week has been the rule for industrial workers in Sweden since 1920, while most office employees work shorter hours. The debate centers around the problem of whether an increase in production should motivate a further increase in wages or a reduction of working hours. Furthermore, it is asked whether this reduction should provide free Saturdays, especially during the summer, or a uniform working week of, say, 45 hours. The 40-hour week is looked upon as a more distant goal.

It hardly needs to be stressed here that the endeavor to achieve greater equality does not aim at the creation of some sort of socialistic system with uniform benefits and identical incomes. Equality of social benefits seems desirable only insofar as it guarantees a minimum standard or creates what might be called the "rock bottom level of maintenance."

To a very large extent these benefits are financed with ordinary taxes. Between 85 and 90 % of the total expenditures for social benefits are made on a universal basis without reference to income. The differentiation between the income classes has for the most part been transferred from the benefits to the progressive schedules of inheritance, income, and other taxes. It seems only fair that if social benefits are to be paid from progressive taxes, those in the higher brackets should not be excluded from some of the benefits.

Important in this connection is also the so-called "solidarity wage policy" of the trade unions. For a long time they have



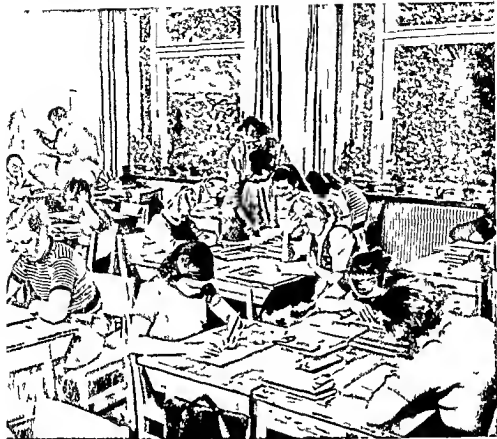
8 and 79 Modern housing architecture in Sweden has set the pace in planning for space and light around living quarters in the city. Playgrounds and recreational opportunities for the small children are standard features. Modern quarters in Malmö and Stockholm. Photos by G. E. Kidder-Smith and Erik Rosenberg.



80 and 81 The upper picture shows the Eastman Institute in Stockholm where free dental care is given thousands of children. Left Fluoroscopy in a primary school in Stockholm. This type of examination is now obligatory in all Swedish schools. Photos by Herman Ronniger and Bo Forngren



1 and 83 South Hospital
 (odorsj khiset) in Stock
 olm is one of the world's
 most modern in its pro
 visions for treatment and its
 clinical equipment. To
 make life in the big towns
 more healthful parks
 and recreation centers have
 been arranged. Photos by
 E. Kidder Smith and
 G. Rosenberg



84 Public libraries with free loan privileges are found throughout Sweden. A view from the City Library in Stockholm. Photo by K. W. Gullers





86 Sports and life in the open occupy a considerable share of Swedish leisure time. In the summer long bicycle trips are popular, especially among the young people. The many youth hostels and the ever-present cycle provide good opportunities for young and old to become acquainted with their native land. Swedish girl on vacation. Photo by T. Ulmerudh.



87a and b The great forests and numerous waterways provide vacation spots with wonderful recreational possibilities in all seasons. Winter forest in Dalarna and canoeing on the Klar River. Photos by Anders Erkers and Lennart Nilsson.



88 89 and 90 One part or the other of Sweden's extensive shoreline is the goal of vacationing people throughout the summer. Bathing on the rocky Bohuslan shore. Photo by K. W. Gullers — Taking long trips in the winter is a more strenuous form of outdoor life, but in summer the northern mountains attract even those who are not too adventurous. (On the opposite page) Photos by Lennart Nilsson

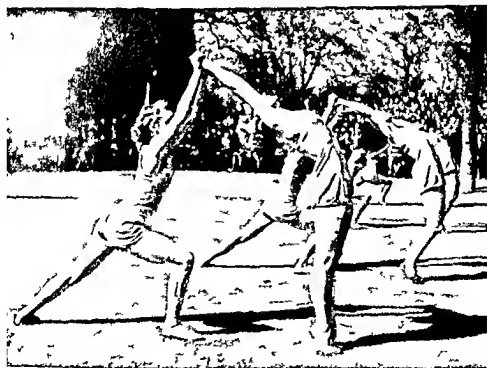
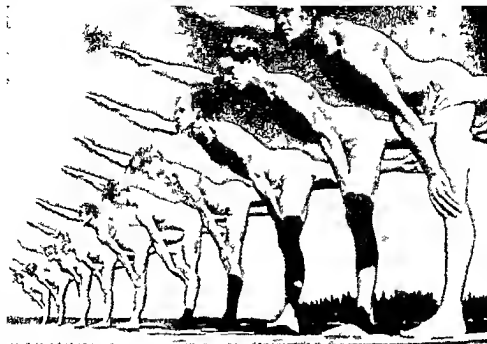




91 and 92 Outdoor sports among them running and skiing have many followers in Sweden. At top, two of the best runners, and left Nils Karlsson, winner of many national and international ski races. Photos by Svenskt Bildreportage and Lennart Nilsson.



93 Sweden's most popular game is soccer. Every Sunday in spring and autumn it attracts large crowds of spectators all over the country. Soccer match in the Råsunda Stadium, Stockholm. Photo by Text & Bild.



94 and 95 Swedish gymnasts enjoys an international reputation. Above a male team and below the famous Sofia Girls in act on. Photos by T. Ulmerudh and Text & Bilder

fought to obtain higher wages for certain underpaid groups of workers. The government has aided this endeavor. In agriculture, for example, the administration tries by means of subsidies, price fixing, and so on to give farmers and farm labor their fair share of the national income.

Not only the *average* standard of living, but also the *general* standard is comparatively high. The differences between rich and poor, working and retired, families and unmarried, city and country inhabitants, and so forth have been reduced and bridged. Obviously it is not possible to indicate precisely the role of the different measures involved in this process.

One thing is clear: Social welfare is expensive, and consequently taxes are high. About one third of the government budget is used for this purpose, as compared with some 25 % for defense. The expenditures of local authorities for social services are also high. Altogether, a sum corresponding to some 10—12 % of the national income is spent for social welfare measures.

EDUCATION

In the areas of universities, schools, and adult education far-reaching reforms are now being carried through. They are designed to give the citizenry increased knowledge and more training, extensive and intensive.

Sweden has only four universities, but they begin at a stage corresponding to the junior or senior college year in the United States and the studies lead only to advanced degrees. Two of these institutions, at Uppsala (founded 1477) and Lund (founded 1666), are state supported and fullfledged universities in the European sense, i. e. with faculties in theology, law, medicine, and philosophy (humanities and natural sci-

ences) Stockholm University at present has faculties in law, humanities, and natural sciences. The Caroline Medical Institute, also in Stockholm, has full university rank in medicine and includes a large, modern hospital. In Lund, Stockholm, and Goteborg institutes are located for advanced studies in the social sciences and public administration to which qualified students are admitted whether secondary school (*laroverk*) graduates or not. Stockholm, furthermore, has a number of graduate schools in special fields, including those of forestry, commerce, dentistry, veterinary science, arts, music, pharmacy, technology (The Royal Institute of Technology), and so forth.

Goteborg University curricula are confined to the humanities and medicine. The city is also the seat of higher institutions for economic and technical studies, notably the Chalmers Institute of Technology. Furthermore, Malmo has a Graduate School of Dentistry.

University studies in Sweden, at least in Uppsala and Lund, have sometimes been charged with being antiquated and steeped in traditionalism, but those two institutions have, on the other hand, been favorably compared by foreign observers with Oxford and Cambridge as distinguished seats of education and culture. Admittedly they need to be modernized, and a reform is now in preparation. In 1948 the students in the universities and other graduate schools numbered 14,000, of whom 3,250 were women. Since the last two years in the secondary school system are considered equivalent to the junior college course or the freshman and sophomore college years in the United States, the number of students in schools of higher learning, in the American sense, is considerably greater than the figures above indicate.

An important extension of university and research activities is in progress. Large sums have been reserved for scholarships, enlargement of the various research institutes, the

acquisition of equipment, and so forth. On the whole the entire research and instruction program is being subjected to revision.

The primary and secondary school systems are even more than the universities in the process of extensive reforms. In 1950 a new Education Act was passed, introducing the so-called comprehensive school (*enhetsskolan*). From Sweden's 1,034 school districts 60, including some of the largest ones, were designated as experimental districts. Consequently about 10 % of the pupils are now being taught in comprehensive schools. These indicate that the future minimum will be a nine-year course in the elementary schools. The other districts offer seven-year courses, in some cases eight.

The intermediate education is obtained in secondary schools (*läroverk*), which, however, like some preparatory schools in the United States, include the upper years of elementary work. In general, a nine-year course, including the elementary years, leads to the Lower Certificate (*realexamen*), a twelve-year course to the Diploma (*studentexamen*). The main subjects are modern foreign languages, humanities, natural science, and mathematics. Oral and written examinations for the Diploma are administered by the National Board of Education and must be passed for admission to university or other graduate school studies. About 6,000 candidates pass this *studentexamen* annually.

In sparsely populated areas, where the schools are far apart, young people are still at a disadvantage in respect to advanced secondary and higher education. Many proposals for a solution have been and are under discussion. Meanwhile, education by correspondence makes a notable contribution by offering higher education to ambitious young people in isolated sections of the country, not to mention those with full programs of study pursued after working hours. In recent years

the correspondence institutes, all of which are private, have convened full-course students in refresher seminars before they face their major examinations. Attempts are also made to combine instruction by correspondence and radio, as in the elementary foreign language courses, apparently an excellent device for providing audio-oral training and overcoming some of the disadvantages of living in areas far from the educational centers. Another valuable reform has brought increased possibilities to rural youths who wish to continue their studies in towns with more advanced educational institutions. A basic allowance of about \$ 150 is guaranteed every qualified applicant whose continued studies necessitate traveling or living away from home. If such an applicant can pass a general test given to both local and out-of-town students with a rating above the average, he is entitled to a supplementary grant of about \$ 140. In this way more than a thousand young people are enabled annually to proceed with their secondary education largely at the expense of the state.

Vocational education has made rapid progress, especially in the population centers; here, too, fair and justified demands are made by the remote regions for more equal opportunities. A parliament act of 1955 stipulates that the number of vocational schools shall at least double within 20 years, the major part of the increase to be effected during the first 10 years. This applies to both the local and the regional vocational schools.

Free and independent self-education pursued by the Swedish people has attracted much attention abroad. Even in the most remote settlements men and women are found who have chosen intensive studies as their avocation. A small farmer, for example, has spent the spare time of his life in collecting the stone and bronze age relics found in his home parish, scientifically identifying and cataloguing them with the aid

of books on the subject which he has procured. Another had made his native dialect the subject of painstaking study which in 1932 was rewarded by Uppsala University with its highest honor, the Ph. D. *honoris causa* degree. Some years ago an old shoemaker from the Närke countryside told radio listeners about his self-education; his ambition was to read the world's classics in the original tongues, and consequently he had acquired several foreign languages on his own to realize his goal. Such cases are, of course, exceptions, but interest in education is deep and sustained throughout the nation.

It was a fortunate day in the Swedish pursuit of knowledge when the popular movements and their leaders turned to education a few decades ago as a means of furthering their ideals. The results have been impressive, especially since the English study-circle method was adopted. By now a network of 27,200 study circles covers the country with a student body of almost 337,000. State subsidies make possible the scheduling of frequent public lectures (nearly 8,000 annually, average attendance over 98) on almost any desired subject in most communities.

In July, 1947, government subsidies for adult education work were considerably increased and now cover 50 per cent of the administrative costs. Specific grants make it possible for the associations to employ more full-time advisors and instructors to train more study-circle leaders and expand the lecture programs. Perhaps the most important feature in the new system of government aid is that the study circles, which previously received no financial aid, are now eligible for grants that pay about half the expenses.

A new departure is the short seminars with lectures and recitations, normally lasting about two weeks and dealing with a single area of study, such as a language, which are arranged from time to time in localities where the educational

opportunities are limited or neglected. Free public libraries (1,500), school libraries (2,000), and study-circle libraries (about 5,000) have attained great circulations and increasing significance. More than twenty million volumes were loaned to almost one and a half million readers in 1947.

People's colleges (*folkbögsolor*) are a type of educational development now receiving lively attention in England (cf. F. Margaret Forster's *School for Life*). They are an older manifestation of voluntary popular education than the types just mentioned and originated in Denmark. These institutions have made rapid progress also in Sweden and at present eighty-six such schools serve as educational centers for their respective regions, enrolling more than 10,400 students each year. Their clientele is the youth from all walks of life, both male and female, their aim to provide a general education in the humanities and citizenship. Each of these colleges is an educational focus to the entire rural district that surrounds it. Some of the people's colleges are independent but associated with the province in which they are located, others are affiliated with one of the popular movements. Best known in the latter group is the Brunnsvik People's College in southern Dalarna, which is connected with the labor movement. The cooperative movement, rural associations, the Church of Sweden, nonconformist groups, and the temperance societies sponsor such colleges. These schools also attract foreign youth; students from eighteen foreign nations were registered at the People's College in Sigtuna in 1947.

A statement made about the Workers' Educational Association, the largest in Sweden, may be cited as a general pattern for this whole movement in adult education:

"Like the British Workers' Educational Association, the Swedish Association is nonvocational, nonsectarian, and nonpolitical. This does not mean that religious and political

questions are not studied. On the contrary, political science and current events form a very important part of the studies. It does not mean that party programs are not studied; they are taken up in detail but always with an attempt at impartiality. Teachers and lecturers are requested to give a fair interpretation of the problems involved and to let the students know what are facts and what personal opinions."

By these and other means Sweden hopes to build an educated democracy in which each citizen has a grasp of the whole and a comprehension which enables him to realize his obligations to his fellow citizens and to society in its entirety.

POPULAR MOVEMENTS

If a picture of modern Sweden is to be traced which might arouse some interest abroad, the popular movements deserve some special attention. The nonconformist revival movements were a reaction to the traditional character of the Church of Sweden; the labor movement rose against the impositions and injustices of the employers; the temperance movements rebelled against the excesses in the use of alcoholic beverages; the sports movements aimed for a more natural and active way of living; the feminist movement wished to enhance woman's place in society; the cooperative movement attempted to create a new form of economic self-help for the great mass of the people. All of these movements are responsible for invaluable contributions of the most varied nature which have in large measure helped to develop Sweden of today.

Since the nonconformist movements will be discussed in a separate chapter on religious life in Sweden, only the secular movements are treated in the present section.

Largest and oldest of the temperance societies is the In-

ternational Order of Good Templars, founded in 1879. English and American prototypes were more or less followed in organizing this and the other important societies: the Order of National Templars, Verdandi, and the Blue Ribbon Society. With a present membership of 322,000, they continue to be an important educational influence in the life of the people and are distinguished by their interest in civic affairs and acceptance of social responsibility. Like the majority of the Free Church organizations, the temperance societies have lent support to the party most in accord with their program. Verdandi is on the whole social democratic or socialistic: a considerable number of Social Democrats are fellow members of the numerous People's Party adherents in the other temperance organizations.

Since the primary goal, female suffrage, was achieved in 1921 by the feminist movement, its activities have in part been transferred to the women's organizations of the various political parties. The pioneer work was done in the years around the turn of the century, but the background figure for the full recognition of women in public life is the talented and warm-hearted author Fredrika Bremer, whose travel descriptions of the United States (*Homes of the New World*) created a real cultural contact between America and Sweden in the middle of the last century.

Largest of all the popular movements started in the nineteenth century and least dependent on foreign models is the Swedish labor organization. The trade unions became the most effective means for joint action to achieve better working conditions. At first the union movement in the capital was politically undecided, but in 1886 socialism became the dominant political creed. This was in many ways decisive for the future, and the Social Democratic Labor Party was organized in 1889. Less than ten years later, in 1898, the trade

unions consolidated into the Confederation of Swedish Trade Unions (*Landsorganisationen*), abbreviated to LO. Progress was rapid and in 1907 LO counted 186,000 members. The general strike of 1909 caused a temporary setback, but the march was soon resumed and LO has today a membership of 1,384,000. Every ninth Englishman and every fifth Swede is a union member, but only one out of ten Americans belongs to organized labor. Cultural aims are also included in the program of the labor movement, and its Worker's Educational Association is the country's largest. Most towns and communities have a People's Hall (*Folkets Hus*), which is the center for all union activities as well as for cultural and social programs. Some of these halls have been decorated by Sweden's foremost artists. Several hundred structures of this type are planned throughout the country for the near future.

Labor organizations and their success inspired the formation of similar associations by farmers and salaried workers in offices, government bureaus, stores, etc. The farmers' groups are joined in a central organization known as The Swedish Farmers' Confederation (*Riksförbundet Landsbygdens Folk*) and under its auspices youth groups and educational associations have also been started. One of their main objectives is the betterment of conditions in isolated regions and they are, for example, erecting community centers for social life, clubs, and youth activities. In a country where industrialization is in steady progress the population movement from the farms to towns and industrial centers is not surprising, but ways and means of arresting the trend are being discussed and tried. The white-collar workers have also united in a central organization. Their earlier associations were consolidated in 1944 as the Central Organization of Salaried Workers (*Tjänstemännens centralorganisation*—TCO), which has a membership of 337,000.

In similar fashion, employers, businessmen, craftsmen, and the owners of small industries have formed central associations to protect and further their respective interests and programs. The cooperative movement (KF), which was discussed above on p. 107, also holds a major place in the list of popular movements.

Swedish organizations do not limit their functions to the recruiting of members for joint action and protection of their common interests. In recent years they have increasingly played a practical role in the life of the nation. When the government is faced with important problems, the organizations within the various societal groups—workers, farmers, industrialists—are sometimes consulted directly and thus recognized as factors in the life of both state and society. This is particularly true in respect to fundamental matters of budget and price control. Such a development is worthy of attention, for a part of Sweden's future is undoubtedly inherent in the organizations of her people.

SPORTS AND GYMNASTICS

The American traveller and author Bayard Taylor, who journeyed through Scandinavia in 1856—1857, amusingly and admiringly relates his experience with Pehr Henrik Ling's system of gymnastics in *Northern Travel* (New York, 1858), at that time a relative novelty. Since then "Swedish exercises" have drawn much attention abroad and inspired the origin of several other systems of physical training. Gymnastics continue to play an important role in Swedish life. It is a required part of the school curricula and many devotees use gymnastics both for general fitness and purposeful physical training either at home or in organized groups.

Sports in general are of considerably more recent date. They came to the fore at the Olympic Games in Stockholm in 1912, when Sweden through good all-round performance and some luck managed to finish with the top score. Since that time, sport has become general and attracts young and old from all walks of life. Sweden has not been predominant in any particular event at the great international competitions, but the strength of Swedish sport lies in its variety and the firm hold it has on the country's youth. Sweden has produced outstanding performers in javelin throw, running (Gunder Hägg), swimming (Arne Borg), Greco-Roman wrestling, pentathlon, association football or "soccer", and skiing. Soccer is very popular, and ice hockey also has many followers, both players and spectators. During the 1952 Olympic Games, the Swedes achieved notable successes. Baseball, cricket, polo, Rugby, and American football are practically unknown. Some golf is played, and tennis has continued to increase in popularity ever since it was introduced to Sweden more than sixty years ago by the late king ("Mr. G."). The various sport clubs are now combined into a National Athletic Association with a total membership of about 880,000.

It is estimated that at least one third of the Swedish people hold membership in one or more of the various organizations outlined above. Those interested in becoming acquainted with modern Sweden would do well to use one of them as the point of introduction.



RELIGIOUS LIFE
IN SWEDEN

THE CHURCH OF SWEDEN
PROTESTANT NONCONFORMISTS
OTHER CHURCHES

THE CHURCH OF SWEDEN

In the provinces of Skåne, Västergötland, Östergötland, in the Lake Malaren basin, and on the island of Gotland, the small stone churches from the twelfth century and the ruins of old monasteries bear witness to the progress of the Roman Catholic Church in Sweden. The style of architecture frequently points to influences from England, France, and Germany. Early in the twelfth century an archbishopric with seat in Lund, then Danish, was established and for a while was the ecclesiastical center of the entire North. Its Roman Catholic cathedral was consecrated in the middle of the century. About the same time a bishopric was instituted at Old Uppsala in central Sweden. As previously mentioned, the bishop's church was erected on the site of the former cult temple, a location symbolic of Christianity's triumph in the very center of the old heathen realm. In 1164 Sweden became a separate archbishopric with the elevation of the Old Uppsala see. Toward the end of the thirteenth century the archbishop removed to the present town of Uppsala. At that time the construction of Uppsala's Gothic cathedral was begun, and relics of the sainted King Erik deposited there. His memory still lives, and the City of Stockholm carries his likeness in its coat of arms.

The bishoprics of Skara, Linköping, Strängnäs, Västerås, and Växjö also have traditions going back to the Middle Ages. Sigtuna and Saint Bridget's Vadstena, two towns that had great significance for the Church in the Middle Ages, have in our own century once more become religious centers.

The ecclesiastical unit corresponding to the commune also enjoys an autonomy which actually dates back to the Catholic Middle Ages in Sweden. The Church of Sweden assumed its present character in the sixteenth century when it became Lutheran and the vehicle of state religion. Foremost among Sweden's religious reformers was Olaus Petri, who had studied in Wittenberg under Luther. He is interred in the Stockholm Cathedral (*Storkyrkan*), the scene of his preaching. His brother, Laurentius, became Sweden's first Lutheran archbishop, like many other outstanding Swedes he is buried in the Uppsala Cathedral.

The Church of Sweden is a state church, and membership is every Swedish child's birthright. Very few Swedes have made use of the recently enacted right to resign from the church. Active participation is not required, and those who are non-conformists or indifferent are still considered members, if they have not actually resigned. At times the relations between church and state have been the subject of lively debate. The activities of the Church are financed by means of income from church forests and other properties, with tax receipts, and voluntary donations.

The Church is under the direction of the government, parliament, the synod, and the bishops. The synod convenes at least every five years, it is composed of clergymen and elected lay delegates from all the dioceses.

Sweden is divided into thirteen dioceses, each headed by a bishop, an organization comparable to that of the Church of England. Uppsala is still the residence of the archbishop, the

incumbent is Yngve Brilioth. The archbishop presides in the synod, in many of the national church organizations, and at the council of bishops.

Sweden is divided into approximately 2,500 parishes. Two or more small ones sometimes share the same clergyman. The total number of clergy serving the parishes is about 3,000, and one of their duties is to record much of the general vital statistics. All Church of Sweden ministers are educated at the University of Uppsala or the University of Lund. Together the two divinity schools have sixteen professorships in theology and about 300 students. The number of divinity students has decreased in recent years.

Central church organizations have been established for parish work, foreign missions, and religious and social work among seamen. Such functions as parish, youth, and Sunday school activities, publishing, newspaper, and study group work are directed by the Board of Parish Work (*Diakonistyrelsen*), located in Stockholm. The Mission Board in Uppsala listed 212 active missionaries in 1955. Missions of the Board are at present functioning in South India and in South and Central Africa. The Seamen's Service Board (*Sjömansvårdsstyrelsen*) of the Church operates in 23 foreign ports. Within the dioceses are separate organizations for voluntary church work.

Swedish homogeneity in language and race is by and large also evident in religion. This is indicated by the fact that more than 90 % of the Swedes are baptized and married by the Church of Sweden clergy. However, these figures do not give the whole picture, for the Church of Sweden has acquired much tolerance since its strictly orthodox organization along Lutheran lines in the seventeenth century. Various religious currents and tendencies make themselves felt within the Church. Protestant nonconformists do not always sever their connections entirely with the official church. Many of those

who are indifferent toward religion nevertheless observe the customs of the Church to a certain extent.

In southwestern Sweden a conservative Lutheranism is predominant. Strict church discipline and high church attendance are in evidence throughout the provinces on the west coast (Göteborg diocese), a situation traceable to the influence of Henric Schartau, a clergyman in Lund early in the nineteenth century. The parishes around Lake Siljan in Dalarna have to an extent preserved old church customs, finding expression, for instance, in the provincial costumes worn to the services and sometimes changed in accordance with the major church holidays. Various revival movements in Norrland that remained united with the Church have given religious life up there a certain Low Church character.

Early in the present century the so-called Young Church movement started among ministers and theology students, partly under the influence of the Christian Students movement. The Young Church wishes to bring about a revival of the Swedish church traditions and speaks of the Church of Sweden as a church of the people rather than a state church. This movement has received a lasting monument and a focus for its activities in Sigtuna. A number of schools and institutions for religious and cultural contacts have been established there under the leadership of Manfred Bjorkquist, now bishop in Stockholm.

Sigtuna is also the location of an institute for the ecumenical movement. The late Archbishop Nathan Söderblom, whose work in many ways was of outstanding importance to Sweden's religious life, *awakened a deep interest in the ecumenical movement among various church groups*. Close connections are maintained with the churches in Denmark, Finland, and Norway. The contacts with Lutherans in Germany date far back in time. During recent decades the Church of Sweden

has established closer relations with the Church of England. In 1922 the two churches agreed upon communion reciprocity.

In Sweden's religious life there are also some associations that work for a more liberal Christianity, others for closer adherence to the confession and the sacraments. Laymen's associations, people's colleges, settlements, youth camps for the various dioceses, and organizations for social service also enter the picture. Lutheran churchmen and Swedish nonconformists cooperate not only in ecumenical organizations but also in others, such as the Y. M. C. A., the Y. W. C. A., armed forces missions, and associations for religious instruction.

PROTESTANT NONCONFORMISTS

In the eighteenth century the German sects of Pietists and Moravian Brethren (Herrnhuter) gained a toe hold in Sweden. The state church authorities voiced definite opposition, but it never came to the formation of lasting groups. However, Sweden's religious life was strongly affected by these movements. Beginning with the 1830's, English nonconformist influences made themselves felt, and during the latter part of the century extensive revival movements occurred, led either by laymen or by clergymen. Some of these movements remained faithful to the Church of Sweden, but many of them were separatist in character. The uneducated lay preachers were an element in the life of the Swedish people during the latter part of the nineteenth century, and Selma Lagerlöf included scenes with such a setting in her novel *Jerusalem*. At this time the first of the simple wooden chapels, meetinghouses, were built, which are maintained in many communities. About 6,000 such chapels and churches exist today, and the largest

of the movements in question owns buildings in the value of more than 14 million dollars. Sweden's general social development during the past century and the United States contacts in connection with emigration favored these movements.

In the beginning the conflicts with the official church were many and serious. They were caused by the differences in teachings and other church matters, as well as by the law which until 1860 enjoined Swedish citizens from professing any other faith than that of the Church of Sweden. During our own century collaboration has been brought about and is now characterized by increasingly great confidence on both sides. Especially in the early days a fundamentalist tendency was strong in the free church groups.

Methodists and Baptists were the first of the religious movements. Inspired by their British equivalents, they came into being in the 1850's and 1860's. During the 1870's the Covenant Mission Church of Sweden developed from an older, Low Church movement and is today perhaps the most typical and also the largest of the nonconformist groups. The Covenant Mission Church comes closest to being Congregationalist in character. Three denominations—Methodist, Baptist, and Covenant Mission Church—constitute the oldest part of the Swedish free church movement, a designation which they themselves use. They cooperate today with five other groups, and they all have a well developed organization with youth activities, Sunday schools, newspapers, a publishing house, social services, and foreign missions. On their staffs are about 1,600 permanent preachers and about 600 missionaries, both groups are trained in special schools for a period of three to five years. Many clergymen of the Protestant free churches share with Catholic priests and Jewish rabbis the right to conduct legally recognized marriage ceremonies.

Several other religious groups of British or American origin

have been formed. The Salvation Army has an extensive Swedish organization with many social service institutions. The Pentecostal Movement has found wide acceptance in Sweden and maintains large home and foreign missions. If the youth auxiliaries are included, more than 550,000 Swedes now belong to the nonconformists. In addition there are 250,000 pupils in the Sunday schools.

OTHER CHURCHES

The Church of England has congregations in Stockholm and Göteborg. Both the French Reformed and the Greek Orthodox churches have a congregation in the capital. Roman Catholics in Sweden number about 6,000 under the spiritual leadership of a bishop in Stockholm, who is under the jurisdiction of the Vatican's Department of Missions. There are three Roman Catholic parishes in the capital. About 12,500 Swedes belong to the Hebrew faith, and Jewish rabbis are engaged in a few of the synagogues. About ten additional international bodies exist, but they are limited in spread and represented only by small groups.



THE CULTURAL HERITAGE

SCIENCE
NOBEL PRIZES
LITERATURE
THE FINE ARTS
MUSIC
THE STAGE
RADIO

SCIENCE

In the fields of science and learning Sweden has gradually developed its own traditions. Early in modern times the Swedes were content to follow the lead of the Continent, but beginning with the Era of Liberty (1719—1772)—a fruitful age in science and discovery—Swedish researchers and inventors have made numerous and significant contributions to the advancement of science and its frontiers. A few names may be mentioned here.

Olof Rudbeck (1630—1702), discoverer of the lymphatics, was the great scientist of the seventeenth century. In his *Atlant* (Atlantis), a tremendous work, he represented Sweden as the country where civilization and culture originated. His opinions were at that time generally accepted, even outside of Sweden.

Typical of his century is Carl von Linné, or Linnaeus (1707—1778), the country's most famous natural scientist, whose plant classification revolutionized botany. After his death Linnaean societies were founded not only in Sweden but also in France, England, the United States, and Australia. The London society is the oldest and best known; it is also the custodian of Linné's collections, manuscripts, and letters.

Disciples of Linné explored almost every part of the world

at his suggestion. They probed and reported the characteristics and peculiarities of natural history in Spain, Palestine, Japan, the Cape of Good Hope, and South America, to mention only a few. Among these scholars, Pehr Kalm is familiar to Anglo-American readers. He spent some time in England and was the first natural scientist to describe large parts of North America (*Peter Kalm's Travels in North America*, 2 vols., New York, 1937).

Linné was one of the initiators and the first president of Sweden's Academy of Science (founded 1739), the institution which now annually selects the candidates for the Nobel Prizes in physics and chemistry.

In general the foundations for the subsequent scientific development in Sweden were laid during the eighteenth century, and her natural scientists achieved a position of international importance during that period. This applies not to Linné alone but to a number of researchers who were wholly on a par with their colleagues on the Continent and in many instances maintained close personal contact with them.

Among these outstanding scientists was Carl Wilhelm Scheele (1742—1786), who discovered oxygen well ahead of Priestley but failed to publish his findings as promptly. As a discoverer of new substances he has probably never been surpassed; his list includes nitrogen, chlorine, glycerine, and many organic acids (uric, lactic, mucic, etc.). By profession Scheele was a pharmacist and his work was done in the face of primitive equipment, lack of working space, business cares, and illness.

Also very prominent was Scheele's teacher, Torbern Bergman (1735—1784), professor in Uppsala, whose new analytical methods have earned him fame as the founder of qualitative and quantitative chemical analysis in the modern sense. His *Physical Description of the Globe* was, as a scientific work, far

in advance of earlier geographical writings of a similar nature and was translated into several languages.

Sweden's outstanding astronomer in the eighteenth century was P. W. Wargentin (1717—1783), who in addition was noted for his work in vital statistics. Also widely known is the remarkable Christopher Polhem (1661—1751), natural scientist, economist, and technological inventor.

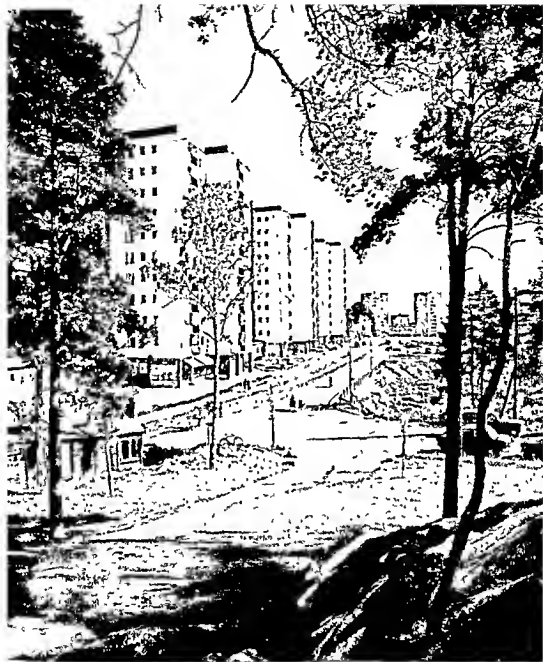
As the scientific development continued during the nineteenth century, much progress was made in the natural sciences. One famous name is that of Jöns Jakob Berzelius (1779—1848).

Berzelius, whose electrochemical theory is considered his greatest achievement, was the first to suggest that the Academy of Science publish annual reports containing accounts of progress in the various fields of scientific endeavor, an idea which was adopted later also in other countries. Berzelius may be considered one of the pioneers in atomic studies; as early as 1818 he published a table of atomic weights for about fifty elements. Furthermore, he is responsible for the system of chemical formulation now used universally.

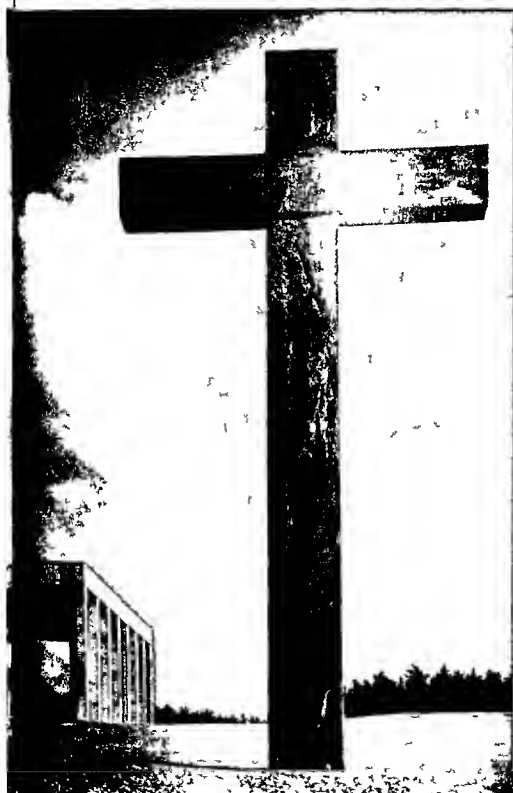
Sweden has also produced several outstanding representatives in the humanities. Sven Lagerbring was an extraordinary exponent of historical studies during the eighteenth century. Johan Ihre is known for his investigation of the Gothic language and for his great Swedish dictionary. Erik Benzelius the Younger was one of the polyhistorians of his age. During the nineteenth century, Erik Gustaf Geijer emerged as an outstanding historian; Oscar Montelius was an exceptional archeologist; and early in the present century the versatile savant Henrik Schück occupied a leading position in the humanities. However, Swedish studies in the humanities have primarily dealt with problems of national interest and have not claimed a great deal of interest abroad.

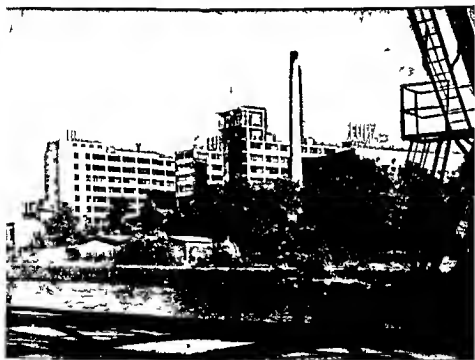
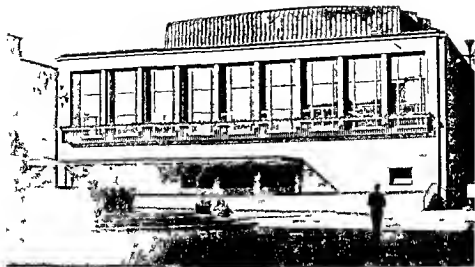
A near-contemporary of Schüch was Svante Arrhenius (1859—1927), an important forerunner in the long list of modern Swedish scientists in various fields. He pioneered in electrolytic research and serum therapy. Two of his books, *Worlds in the Making* (1908) and *Destinies of the Stars* (1918), have been translated into most of the major languages. Gerard de Geer (1858—1943), geologist, evolved the geochronic system of prehistoric time determination previously mentioned. Manne Siegbahn (1886—) has made important discoveries in his X-ray research. The Svedberg (1884—) determined the molecular weight of more than fifty pure protein substances and during the war developed a process for manufacturing a synthetic rubber; he heads the Physiochemical Institute of Uppsala University. Allvar Gullstrand (1862—1930), ophthalmologist and physicist, brought about modern improvements in eyeglasses through his researches. Arne Tiselius (1902—) has made important discoveries in the field of biochemistry.

A number of scholars have also established a reputation for their work in the modern humanities. Mention should be made of such men in theology and the history of religion as the late Archbishop Nathan Soderblom (1866—1931), Tor Andræ (1885—1947), Gustaf Aulén (1879—), Anders Nygren (1890—), and Yngve Brilioth (1891—), of historians like Harald Hjärne (1848—1922) and Lauritz Weibull (1873—), and philosophers such as Hans Larsson (1862—1944), Axel Hagerström (1868—1939), and Adolf Phalén (1884—1931). The two latter developed a philosophical approach at Uppsala which is characterized by strict, logical analysis. The list could be continued with such investigators as Martin P:son Nilsson (1874—) in classical archeology, Einar Löfstedt (1880—1955) in Latin philology, Eilert Ekwall (1877—) in English philology, Henrik Samuel Nyberg (1889—) in Oriental studies,



96. Modern Swedish architecture. Apartment houses in the new suburb of Vällingby, near Stockholm. Photo by Ateljé Sundshl.





1 and 99 The exterior of the new Concert Hall in Göteborg — The cooperatives play an important rôle in Sweden's economy. Much of the food and the goods consumed in Sweden is sold by the stores of Konsum. The consumers cooperative also has its own factories. Shown below is its Luma lamp factory in Stockholm, also representative of modern factory architecture in Sweden. Photos by G. I. Kidder Smith.

Johan Nordström (1891—) in the history of education, and many others.

In medicine Gösta Forssell (1876—) has done successful work on radiotherapy in cancer, and Herbert Olivecrona (1891—) is a world-known brain surgeon. Other notable names among the specialists in Swedish medicine include the famous surgeon Clarence Crafoord (1899—) and the biochemist Hugo Theorell (1903—), Nobel Prize winner in 1955.

NOBEL PRIZES

In the Introduction, we mentioned Alfred Nobel's magnificent donation, the income from which is distributed in November every year in the form of prizes to the foremost men and women in the realms of literature and natural sciences. A further prize is awarded the person or organization that during the year has done the most to further international understanding and world peace. Many nationalities have been represented among the select few who have received this high distinction from the hands of the King of Sweden.

Since 1901, the year in which the prizes first were awarded, Americans have captured nine physics awards, seven in chemistry, eleven in medicine and physiology, four in literature, and eleven peace prizes. England's share in the Nobel awards is twelve physics prizes, seven in chemistry, eight in medicine and physiology, three in literature, and six peace prizes. The English achievement is even more impressive if the whole Empire is included. The Peace Prize is distributed by the Norwegian *Storting* (Parliament), the Physics and Chemistry Prizes by the Swedish Academy of Science, the Medicine Prize by the Caroline Medical Institute, and the Literature Prize by the Swedish Academy.

Among the total of 290 Nobel prize winners since the first awards in 1901 the following are Englishmen or Americans

<i>Physics</i>			
Lord Rayleigh	1904	Theodore W Richards	1914
Joseph J Thomson	1906	Frederick Soddy	1921
Albert A Michelson	1907	Francis W Aston	1922
Sir William H Bragg	1915	Arthur Harden	1929
Sir William L Bragg	1915	Irving Langmuir	1932
Charles G Barkla	1917	Harold Urey	1934
Robert A Millikan	1923	Walrer N Haworth	1937
Arthur H Compton	1927	James B Sumner	1946
Charles R. Wilson	1927	John H Northrop	1946
Owen W Richardson	1928	Wendall M Stanley	1946
P A M Dirac	1933	Sir Robert Robinson	1947
James Chadwick	1935	W F Giauque	1949
Carl D Anderson	1936	Edwin M McMillan	1951
Clinton J Davisson	1937	Glenn T Seaborg	1951
George P Thomson	1937	A J P Martin	1952
Ernest O Lawrence	1939	R L M Synge	1952
Otto Stern	1943	Linus C Pauling	1954
Isidor I Rabi	1944	Vincent Du Vigneaud	1955
Percy W Bridgman	1946	<i>Physiology and Medicine</i>	
Sir Edward V Appleton	1947	Sir Ronald Ross	1902
P M S Blackett	1948	Alexis Carrel	1912
Cecil F Powell	1950	Archibald V Hill	1922
Sir John D Cockcroft	1951	Sir Frederick G Hopkins	1929
Felix Bloch	1952	Sir Charles S Sherrington	1932
Edward M Purcell	1952	Edgar D Adrian	1932
Max Born	1954	Thomas H Morgan	1933
Willis E Lamb	1955	George H Whipple	1934
Polykarp Kusch	1955	George R Minot	1934
		William P Murphy	1934
		Sir Henry H Dale	1936
		Edward A Doisy	1943
		Joseph Erlanger	1944
<i>Chemistry</i>			
Sir William Ramsay	1904		
Ernest Rutherford	1908		

Herbert S. Gasser	1944	Sir Winston Churchill	1953
Sir Alexander Fleming	1945	Ernest Hemingway	1954
Sir Howard Florey	1945		
Herman J. Muller	1946	<i>Peace</i>	
Carl F. Cori and Gerty T. Cori	1947	Sir William R. Cremer	1903
Edward C. Kendall	1950	Theodore Roosevelt	1906
Philip S. Hench	1950	Elihu Root	1912
Selman A. Waksman	1952	Woodrow Wilson	1919
Hans A. Krebs	1953	Sir Austen Chamberlain	1925
Fritz A. Lipmann	1953	Charles G. Dawes	1925
John F. Enders	1954	Frank B. Kellogg	1929
Thomas H. Weller	1954	Jane Addams	1931
Frederick C. Robbins	1954	Nicholas M. Butler	1931
		Sir Norman Angell	1933
		Arthur Henderson	1934
		Viscount Cecil of Chelwood	1937
		Cordell Hull	1945
		Emily G. Balch	1946
		John R. Mott	1946
		The Friends Service Council, London	1947
		American Friends Service Committee	1947
		Lord Boyd Orr of Brechin	1949
		Ralph Bunche	1950
		George C. Marshall	1953
<i>Literature</i>			
Rudyard Kipling	1907		
George B. Shaw	1925		
Sinclair Lewis	1930		
John Galsworthy	1932		
Eugene O'Neill	1936		
Pearl S. Buck	1938		
Thomas S. Eliot	1948		
William Faulkner	1949		
Earl Russell	1950		

LITERATURE

The partly versified text on the Rök runestone from the eighth century is Sweden's oldest literary document: difficult to decipher, it is one of the most remarkable evidences of early Scandinavian culture. Saint Birgitta (1303—1373) has already been mentioned as the first historical personage in Swedish literature. From her century comes also the first rhymed

chronicle, *Erikskronikan*, in the romantic style then popular on the Continent. A poem in praise of freedom written by Bishop Thomas while the battles raged over the Scandinavian Union is still current. Its pithy sentiment that

"Freedom is of all things best
For man to seek in global quest"

had inspired several composers in modern times. In the age of Gustav Vasa the foundations for modern, literary Swedish were laid by the Bible translation and the religious writer Olaus Petri. During the seventeenth century the literary ideals of the Renaissance found devoted followers in Sweden. Talented proponents of the French classical style and the philosophy of the Enlightenment appeared in eighteenth century Swedish literature.

A distinct place in the literature of the eighteenth century is held by Emanuel Swedenborg (1688—1772), well known especially in the Anglo-American countries. In the eyes of his contemporaries his fame rested on his scholarship and research. He was also well noted as a mystic.

Another unique position is held by Carl Michael Bellman (1740—1795). The sketches of Stockholm life in his short songs, which he sang himself to the accompaniment of his lute, are characterized by an incomparable vividness and directness. They are full of esprit and feeling, alternating between joy and melancholy, a mixture of naturalism and rococo. Written to be sung, they are still on the people's lips today. French influence on Swedish culture reached its peak with Gustav III, the creator of a national Swedish opera and patron of literature, to which he gave royal sanction through the establishment of the Swedish Academy (1786). A brilliant poet and contemporary of Bellman was Johan Henrik Kellgren (1751—1795).



100. The coronation of Gustav III (detail of a painting by C. G. Pilo) with the four estates surrounding the King. Photo by the National Museum.





101 and 102 Above: A portrait of August Strindberg by Richard Bergh (1896, in the National Museum) On the opposite page: "Svejkarden" by Ernst Jansson, a painting of a Swedish mythological figure, deeply rooted in folk tradition. (1900, collection at Waldemarsudde, now a museum)



103 and 104 Paintings by Carl
W. Thelmsen June afternoon (in
the Art Museum in Göteborg) and
Anders Zorn Margit and Leif
Lagergren

105 a and b The Egg of Colum-
bus a painting by Nils von Dardel
106 d in 1943 in the United
States and below Geths man
by Bror Hjorth





107 Folke Filbyter a legendary figure in Sweden's medieval history in Linköping Statue by Carl Milles (1875-1955)

A "Golden Age" in Swedish literature began with the early nineteenth century. Esaias Tegnér's (1782—1846) poems, translated in part by Henry W. Longfellow and many others, were written at this time, including the main epic cycle of Sweden, *Fritbiof's Saga*. To the same generation belong Erik Gustaf Geijer (yā'yēr; 1783—1847), poet, historian, philosopher, and an intellectual leader of importance; Per Daniel Amadeus Atterbom (1790—1855), strongly influenced by the romantic movement on the Continent and author of the poetic drama *The Isle of Bliss*, on which Hilding Rosenberg has based an opera; the great hymnist Johan Olof Wallin (1779—1839); the enigmatic but brilliant Carl Jonas Love Almquist (1793—1866), whose fifteen years in the United States to escape a murder charge still are a rather unexplored period. His works have gained increasing recognition. Almquist tried his hand at every form of literature and in all of them demonstrated his significance as an artist. Erik Johan Stagnelius (1793—1823), a real romanticist, made lasting contributions to Swedish poetry before his premature death. He must be considered one of Sweden's foremost lyrists, gifted as he was with a rare ability to sense and bring out the genius of the

in placing social problems in a literary setting, his sensitivity, scepticism, relativism, and mysticism, all of which are found in his writings

Ola Hansson (1860—1925) may be mentioned among the many important authors in the same period, that of Swedish naturalism

Swedish literature toward the end of the past century followed the general trends in the literature of Europe, giving expression as it did to esthetic symbolism, patriotic idealism, and historical romance. The foremost representative here was Verner von Heidenstam (1859—1940), who presented his philosophy of life in both prose and verse. His historical novel *Karolmerna* is available in English translation. It may be said that modern lyric writing begins in Sweden with Heidenstam's collection of poems *Nya Dikter* (*New Poems*, 1915)

Selma Lagerlof (1858—1940), story teller par excellence (*Gosta Berling's Saga*, *Jerusalem*, *Nils Holgersson*), is next to Strindberg the Swedish author best known abroad. Most of her works have been translated into a number of languages.

These achievements also coincided with a great period in lyric poetry. Oscar Levertin (1862—1906) was both a critic and a poet, a combination not unusual in Sweden. Gustaf Fröding (1860—1911) is another of Sweden's greatest poets. His language is exceptionally musical. Melancholy and humor dwell side by side in his view of life. The poetry of Erik Axel Karlfeldt (1864—1931) deals largely with his native province of Dalarna. He made effective use of the Dalecarlian concepts in folklore and art but was at the same time versatile in his interpretation and moved on a high lyric plane.

In the early part of this century the authors of the new generation began to devote themselves to the realistic novel. Some of the most important names in this group are Hjalmar Söderberg (1869—1941), sceptic and chronicler of Stockholm

life; Sven Lidman (1882—), novelist and poet in his youth, a moralist of note in his later years; Sigfrid Siwertz (1882—), dramatist and novelist; Martin Koch (1882—1940) and Ludvig Nordström (1882—1942), who were primarily portray-ers of social conditions; Gustaf Hellström (1882—), jour-nalist and belles lettres author; and Elin Wägner (1882—1949), feminist and writer. A typical Swede was the great hu-morist Albert Engström (1869—1940), outstanding both as author and artist in word and picture.

The great genius of the present century's novel is Hjalmar Bergman (1883—1931). In numerous books, many of them very individualistic, he has demonstrated his talents as a psy-chologist sounding the depths of human nature, as humorist, depicter of customs and mores, and as a somewhat bizarre philosopher.

Birger Sjöberg (1885—1929) was a profound and original poet who in part followed a typically Swedish tradition in the poems he set to music.

Pär Lagerkvist (1891—) may be characterized as the mod-ern, introspective thinker who is wholly preoccupied with the problems of his age and with the eternal ones as well.

Lyrists of note are Bo Bergman (1869—), Vilhelm Ekelund (1880—1950), Anders Österling (1884—), Dan Andersson (1888—1920), Gunnar Mascoll Silfverstolpe (1893—1942), Bertil Malmberg (1889—), Karl Asplund (1890—), Sten Se-lander (1891—), Erik Blomberg (1892—), Hjalmar Gull-berg (1898—), Karin Boye (1900—1941), Johannes Ed-felt (1904—), Artur Lundkvist (1906—), Gunnar Ekelof (1907—), Erik Lindegren (1910—), and Karl Vennberg (1910—). Some of them, like Boye, Lundkvist and Ekelöf, have also written important works of prose.

A unique position in modern Swedish literature is held by Harry Martinson (1904—), poet and prose author. Only a

few important prose writers may be mentioned here: Vilhelm Moberg (1898—), well known in the US for his epic novels of the Swedish immigrants; Eyvind Johnson (1900—), Frans G. Bengtsson (1894—), Tage Aurell (1895—), Agnes von Krusenstjerna (1894—1940), Olle Hedberg (1899—), Jan Fridegård (1897—) and, of the younger, Lars Ahlin (1915—) and Stig Dagerman (1923—1954).

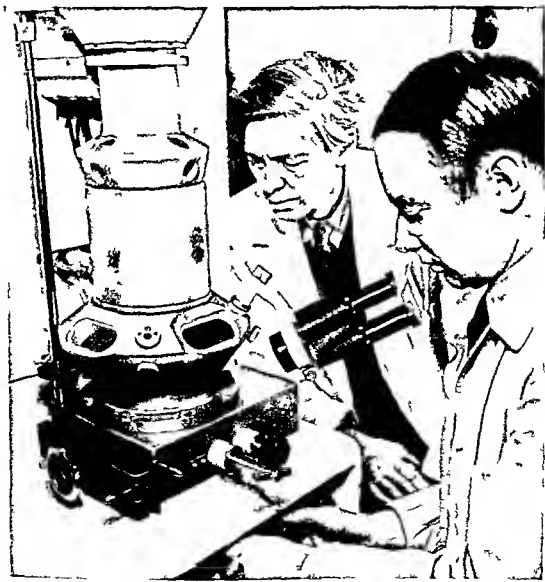
The rich revival of literature during the past two decades has in part taken place under Anglo-American influence. Since today's poets and authors stem from all walks of life they are able to achieve collectively a searching and comprehensive reflection of people and conditions in modern Sweden.

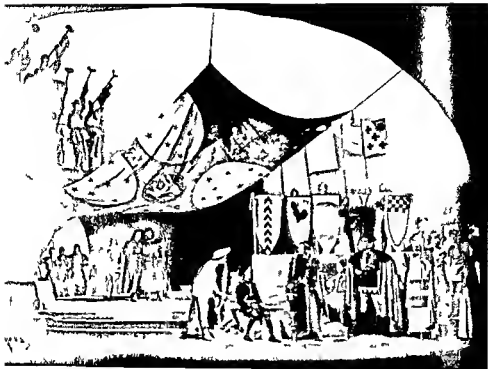
During the past decades a number of influential critics have emerged, many of whom are themselves at the same time active as creative writers; in a way this represents a tradition which started with Oscar Levertin around the turn of the century.

Program notes never replace the concert, and a brief account with a few names does not convey the value of a country's literature. Fortunately, an impressive selection of acceptable and sometimes excellent translations is available to the English reader. Reference can be made to the Scandinavian Classics, published by the American-Scandinavian Foundation, which contain many representative Swedish works, including anthologies of lyrics and short stories. Practically all the major works of such authors as Fredrika Bremer, Strindberg, and Selma Lagerlof have been translated. Some translated titles will be found under almost all the authors mentioned above, except perhaps for the lyrists and those of most recent time.

THE FINE ARTS

A foreign visitor may most easily gain a comprehension of what Sweden has attained in the fine arts from her buildings,



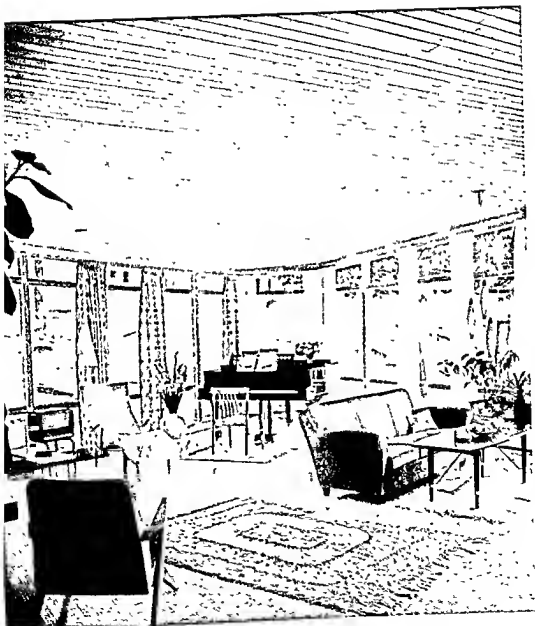


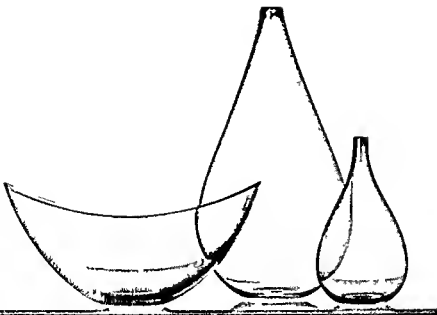


110 111, 112 Above a performance on the 18th century stage at Drottningholm Palace, where plays from the baroque and the rococo time are given during the summer season. On the opposite page above, a performance of the Shakespearean play *Richard III* at the Royal Dramatic Theater in Stockholm stage, design by Sven Erixson. Below a picture from the film *Miss Julie* produced by Alf Sjöberg after Strindberg's play. Photos by L. af Petersens, S. Jarlas and Sandrew Film.



and 114 Above a modern room interior with furniture designed by Carl Malmsten
 also by Arne Wahlberg On the opposite page an interior from a house mainly constructed
 of glass designed by Hugo Mathsson Varnamo Photo Arne Persson





115 and 116 Set of glasses from Orrefors (top) by Sven Palmquist and from Kosta (below) by Elsa Bergh Photos by Orrefors and Arne Wahlberg







ancient and modern, and from the treasures in the various museums. Old peasant culture may, for example, be studied in Stockholm's open air museum, *Skansen*, or at Anders Zorn's "Old Homestead" (*Gammelgård*) at Mora in Dalarna. Various types of farm buildings, textiles, folk paintings, and designs by country artists can be seen in rich selections—a living history of Sweden's past.

Another record, a vivid story of early Christianity, may be traced in Sweden's medieval churches; royal castles from the sixteenth century—Gripsholm, Vadstena, Kalmar—fuse Nordic austerity with southern renaissance and bring the imagination back to the Vasa Age. Baroque castles from the seventeenth century, built by wealthy noblemen, reflect Sweden's era of power and expansion. In the imposing, classical lines of Stockholm's Royal Palace we meet for the first time a nonanonymous, native architect of high excellence, Nicodemus Tessin the Younger (d. 1728). More recently Sweden has been noted abroad for modern and original architecture both in public and private buildings. Some of the Stockholm churches and Ragnar Östberg's (1866—1945) romantic City Hall have already been mentioned. The interesting City Library in Stockholm by Gunnar Asplund (1885—1940) has been the subject of high praise as well as controversy. He is the leading figure in modern Swedish architecture and has gained many followers who strive for an architectural style with a social emphasis.

During the intimate cultural contacts with France in the eighteenth century, Swedish painting received international recognition in the works of several representative artists. Some may with equal justice be included in both French and Swedish histories of art, such as Alexander Roslin (1718—1793) and Nicolas Lafrensen or Lavreince (1737—1807), others in Danish and Swedish histories, of whom Carl Gustaf

Pilo (1711—1793) may be mentioned. Elias Martin (1739—1818), creator of elegant landscape paintings, was trained in England but soon freed himself from outside influences to develop an original style. Carl Fredrik von Breda (1759—1818), a pupil of Reynolds in England, is perhaps best known for his portrait of Gainsborough. Johan Tobias Sergel (1740—1814) was Sweden's greatest sculptor of the period.

A new flowering occurs toward the end of the nineteenth century. Mention may be made of the pioneering Ernst Josephson (1851—1906), perhaps the most individualistic of the Swedish painters who produced works of epochmaking importance. His last canvasses, originated during his serious mental illness, have recently been rediscovered and subjected to a new evaluation. Others were the gifted but eccentric Carl Fredrik Hill (1849—1911); the versatile Anders Zorn (1860—1920), who earned especially great esteem in the American art world; and a number of devoted interpreters of Swedish nature and everyday life, such as Bruno Liljefors (1860—1939), Carl Larsson (1853—1919), Carl Wilhelmson (1866—1928), Karl Nordstrom (1855—1923), and Prince Eugen (1865—1947), brother of King Gustav V.

Most of these artists belonged to the Artists Association (*Konstnärsförbundet*), which had a decisive influence on the development of Swedish art during those decades.

Great artistic activity, which to some extent observes the French trends, is characteristic of our own times. At least one contemporary artist is internationally famous: the sculptor Carl Milles (1875—1955), who in recent years spent much time and did a great deal of his work in the United States. Space does not permit more than a mention of a few modern painters: Olof Sager-Nelson (1868—1896), Ivar Arosenius (1878—1909), Karl Isakson (1878—1922), Leander Engstrom (1886—1927), Gosta Sandels (1887—1919), Nils von

Dardel (1888—1943), Isaac Grönwald (1889—1946), his wife Sigrid Hjertén (1885—1948), Vera Nilsson (1888—), Bror Hjort (1894—), Ivan Ivarson (1900—1939), and Ragnar Sandberg (1902—). A fine etcher was Axel Fridell (1894—1935).

The Swedish museums are highly developed and enjoy strong support from both the state and the municipalities. During recent years a system of travelling exhibits has been expanded more and more. Parts of the collections in the regular museums are sent out as ambulatory exhibits all over the country, many of them coming from Sweden's foremost art institute, the National Museum in Stockholm. More and more interest in artistic creation is shown by the public authorities, by private concerns, and also by the popular movements. This is reflected particularly in the outfitting and decoration of public buildings.

In the past few years there have been various indications of a rising interest in art on the part of the general public. One of its manifestations is the so-called "Art Club." A large number of such clubs have been formed by the employees in all kinds of business undertakings.

MUSIC

Singing as a form of music, especially group singing, has long been popular in Sweden. A rich treasury of folksongs, augmented by more recent lyrics, has always given the university glee clubs ample material. From there popular group singing has spread to the schools, especially the people's colleges, as well as to many of the movements described in the previous chapter. As a matter of fact, group singing is now almost

1927) also belonged to this school in his earlier years, but his later work has a severely classicist, restrained character.

Tradition has been upheld by such composers as Kurt Atterberg (1887—), Oskar Lindberg (1887—), and, to a certain extent, by the highly original Ture Rangström (1884—1947). A distinctly modern tonal expression is used by a number of the present composers of the last generations. First among these is the very prolific and widely performed Hilding Rosenberg (1892—), whose outstanding choral symphony *The Revelation of Saint John* was greeted enthusiastically after its first performance in the United States (Chicago), 1948, the composer himself conducting. Among the younger ones the following may also be mentioned: Gösta Nystroem (1890—), Lars-Erik Larsson (1908—), Dag Wirén (1905), Gunnar de Frumerie (1908—), and, of the most modern ones, Karl-Birger Blomdahl (1916—).

Swedish opera includes the customary international repertoire, but a number of indigenous creations are also produced. Wilhelm Peterson-Berger, Ture Rangström, Kurt Atterberg, Gunnar de Frumerie, Oskar Lindberg, and Hilding Rosenberg have composed significant operatic works. Opera in Sweden harkens back to a great tradition with such world-famous names as Jenny Lind and Kristina Nilsson. In our own day, Swedish singers like Karin Branzell, Gertrud Pålson-Wettergren, Kerstin Thorborg, Birgit Nilsson, Jussi Bjorling, Set Svanholm, and Joel Berglund have become known far beyond the limits of their own country.

THE STAGE

¹ stage in the real sense was not established
eighteenth century and then on the

a "movement" by itself, although not so common as in England, for instance.

Sweden has usually been well represented abroad by singers of distinction. Jenny Lind Goldschmidt (1820—1887), P. T. Barnum's famed "Swedish Nightingale," was beloved on both sides of the Atlantic; for the last thirty-five years of her life she resided in London and was for some years professor at the Royal College of Music. Kristina (Christine) Nilsson (1843—1921) was the leading prima donna of Paris for almost a decade around 1870 and in 1883 sang the feminine lead at the opening of the Metropolitan in New York. In our own day a regular succession of singers from Sweden, both men and women, are heard in leading roles both at the Metropolitan Opera House in New York and Covent Garden in London. In 1947, for example, five Swedish stars were singing at the Metropolitan.

Interest in orchestral music was rather limited until comparatively recently. In the Swedish countryside, however, an astoundingly rich tradition of instrumental music has existed, surpassing even the wealth of the folksong. Modern composers have frequently acquired motifs and inspiration from this heritage.

Sweden has no composer whose fame abroad compares to Grieg's or Sibelius' of her more fortunate neighbors. Franz Berwald (1796—1868) wrote symphonies of high quality which deserve to be more widely known. The national trend which characterizes the postromantic music in various European countries gained its first significant proponent in August Söderman (1832—1876) and is represented in the next generation by Wilhelm Peterson-Berger (1867—1942) and Hugo Alfvén (1872—); the latter's rhapsody "Midsummer Night" is based on folkmusic motifs and often heard on the radio and in the concert halls. Wilhelm Stenhammar (1871—

1927) also belonged to this school in his earlier years, but his later work has a severely classicist, restrained character.

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THE STAGE

A national Swedish stage in the real sense was not established before the end of the eighteenth century and then on the

initiative of theater-loving King Gustav III. He was the first person in Sweden to realize the immense importance of a good stage in a nation's intellectual development. Not only did he introduce to Sweden the significant French drama of his time, but he also provided the stimulus for original attempts in Swedish, in no small degree through the plays he himself wrote.

During this time the beautiful theater in Drottningholm Castle was built by the architect C. F. Adelcrantz. Dedicated in 1766, it is still preserved together with its complicated operatic machinery. Also extant is a large number of stage settings with high artistic merit—a unique and valuable source for the knowledge of the stage in the baroque and rococo periods. Theaters were also built in the castles of Ulriksdal (1753) and Gripsholm (1781), both of which are preserved.

The Swedish drama of the nineteenth century followed to a large extent the path of historical romance, early introduced in Sweden. No first-rate playwright, however, emerged before August Strindberg (1849—1912). His dramatic works, chief element in his literary production, are uneven but include many great plays which have made his name one of the most important in modern dramaturgy. His influence asserts itself strongly in our own day, especially on the American stage, where it has been possible to carry out to the full Strindberg's scenic intentions.

In his choice of subject, Strindberg followed the tradition of the historical romance in his first masterpiece, *Master Olof* (1872). At the same time he breaks with that tradition both in the daringly realistic psychology and in the aroused outspokenness which give to the drama its vivid quality. Strindberg's subsequent production includes both programmatic and naturalistic plays. In the 1890's the dramatist passed through a religious crisis, after which he wrote a series of symbolistic

pieces. They derive their originality and dramatic intensity largely from the unconventional realism which characterizes Strindberg's interpretation of the people he portrays. In no small degree those qualities are also traceable to Strindberg's language and dialogues, the latter uniquely fresh and penetrating. In structure and form these plays were the forerunners of the expressionistic stage in the 1920's, which was also strongly influenced by them. Beginning with the turn of the century and simultaneously with these symbolistic dramas, Strindberg wrote several plays with Swedish kings as the chief characters. In their historical interpretation these pieces are very subjective, but as literary creations they contain in their best passages a visionary suggestivity hardly ever surpassed in modern dramaturgy.

Both in Strindberg's day and later, Swedish dramatic writing has been rather plentiful, even though few of the authors have penetrated even by name beyond the boundaries of their native country. One exception is Hjalmar Bergman (1883—1931), whose works have been put on quite frequently abroad in recent years. While essentially a novelist, Bergman has in his plays furnished some brilliant proofs of his skill in picturesque delineation of human character. He leans somewhat toward symbolistic fantasy and has at the same time a sparkling humor.

Another successful dramatist in the present century is Pär Lagerkvist (1891—). He is practically the lone representative of the expressionistic drama and, furthermore, the creator of a new "idea play." Among the several others who should be mentioned in this connection are Tor Hedberg, Rudolf Varnlund, Sivar Arnér and Björn Erik Hoijer.

The plays written in Sweden have never sufficed to furnish a complete repertoire for the theaters. The stage has therefore reflected the various currents abroad and has thus func-

tioned as an open window to foreign cultures. This contact with the international drama has led to a number of interesting, artistically perfected productions, for staging and acting in Sweden have also been brought to a high standard through the active relations with the foreign stage. Among the American playwrights, Eugene O'Neill has been most frequently played, but also Maxwell Anderson and many others have had plays produced in Sweden.

Among the leading names in the present generation of female actors on the Swedish stage we may mention Tora Teje and Inga Tidblad, both excellent character portrayers; Gunn Wållgren is also a worthy young representative of this group. Anders de Wahl (1869—1956) for two generations played with gusto the leading rôles in both the classic and the modern repertoire. A genius on the Swedish stage and its greatest virtuoso was Gosta Ekman (1890—1938). Lars Hanson's (1886—) talent for acute psychological analysis has made him Sweden's foremost interpreter of Strindberg; Olof Widgren, Ulf Palme, Anders Ek, and Jarl Kulle are good representatives of the younger generation on the Swedish stage. Modern Swedish stagecraft is deeply indebted to capable and imaginative directors, such as Per Lindberg, Olof Molander, Alf Sjöberg, Per-Axel Branner, Sandro Malmquist, and, among the youngest ones, Ingmar Bergman and Bengt Ekerot. A choreographer of international reputation is Birgit Cullberg.

Swedish stage art is primarily centered in Stockholm. Here we find the Dramatic Theater, which besides its regular stage has an experimental one added in 1945, four other theaters with a dramatic repertoire, one operetta house, and a number of revue theaters. But Göteborg also has two theaters, each with a permanent staff of artists, an operetta stage with outstanding traditions, and a dramatic playhouse boasting a double stage and the most modern equipment. Besides other playhouses, Malmö

has a municipal theater which is the largest and most modern in Scandinavia. New municipal theaters have also been built in other towns, such as Halsingborg, Linköping, and Norrköping.

Not many are left of the formerly so esteemed private companies that were on the road in season. However, the Swedish rural districts need not be entirely without occasional opportunity to attend first-rate performances. Through the National Theater Agency, now in operation for about a decade, various arrangements are made to present plays in the provinces. Tours are scheduled by the Agency for companies from the national theaters in Stockholm, from the state-subsidized theaters, and from those under private management. In addition, companies are assembled directly by the Agency and sent on tour. Thus the country districts have a chance to see the foremost artists in excellent plays staged by Sweden's best directors. Every year twenty to twenty-five tours are arranged, staffed with approximately three hundred actors from the dramatic, operatic, and operetta stage. More than one hundred localities are played annually, and the number of performances per year exceeds five hundred. Where regular theaters are not available, the performances are arranged in other halls, such as the "People's Hall" of the local labor organizations, in the temperance society's auditorium, or during summer tours on an open-air stage.

RADIO

The radio has assumed a significant place in Swedish everyday life. The rapid increase in the number of licenses issued to radio owners shows the growing importance of broadcasting as a social factor. In 1956 they numbered about two

and a half millions, and since 1939 Sweden has had more radios per thousand inhabitants than any other country in Europe.

The Swedish programs are largely planned along the same lines as those in most European countries. Included are entertainment of various types, such as *concerts* and plays, popular education programs, news and interviews, topics of the day, debates, and religious programs. A characteristic feature is the important part popular education plays in the total program plan.

The Swedish radio has made a specialty of interviews out in the Swedish countryside where contact is made with people from every walk of life. This is done by sending out cars equipped with recording apparatus and staffed by reporters and technicians to all parts of the country. The recordings are preserved in archives and catalogued, thus making them available for research. Ethnographers and dialect investigators agree that this activity of Radio Service furnishes an invaluable record of everyday life among the Swedish people. It will give future generations an accurate conception of how people lived, thought, and spoke in our times.

Sweden's Radio School is conducted in close cooperation with the National Board of Education and has aroused considerable interest in the regular schools. About 300,000 copies have already been printed of the text book accompanying the Radio School's programs. They are at the disposal of any individual or group wishing to participate in the instruction.

STATISTICAL SURVEY

STATISTICAL SURVEY

Location. Sweden is one of the northernmost countries in the world. Her extreme southern point is on the same latitude as the northern tip of Ireland and the southernmost part of Hudson Bay. Sweden extends farther north than Iceland and almost as far as Alaska's northern extremity. One seventh of Sweden's total area is situated north of the Arctic Circle.

Southernmost point: Smygehuk, $55^{\circ} 20'$ N. lat.

Northernmost point: Three-Country Cairn (*Riksröset*) at Koltajaure, $69^{\circ} 4'$ N. lat.

Westernmost point: Stora Drammen skerry, northeast of Koster Islands, $10^{\circ} 28'$ W. long.

Easternmost point: Kataja Island, below the mouth of Torne River, $24^{\circ} 10'$ E. long.

Greatest length, north to south: 978 miles.

Greatest width: 310 miles.

Time: Central European, one hour ahead of Greenwich.

The land boundary toward Finland measures 333 miles, toward Norway 1,030. The Finnish-Swedish border follows the deepest channel of the Torne and Muonio rivers, while the Norwegian-Swedish one runs over the mountainous wastes of

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Kjolen, watershed of the Scandinavian Peninsula, down to northern Varmland where it becomes a linguistic and cultural boundary rather than a natural one

Sweden borders in the west on the waters of Skagerrack, Kattegat, and The Sound, in the east on the Baltic Sea, the Åland Sea, and the Gulf of Bothnia

Area Sweden includes approximately three fifths of the Scandinavian Peninsula Her total area is 173,359 square miles, of which 158,301 are land, 15,058 water Aside from Russia, only two of the other European countries have a larger area than Sweden, namely France (212,741 sq miles) and Spain (194,208 sq miles), the area of prewar Germany also was larger (214,672 sq miles) By comparison, Great Britain (England, Scotland, and Wales) has an area of 88,803 square miles, continental United States 3,022,387

Sweden's area and population may be compared with those of the three North American States of Wisconsin, Minnesota, and North Dakota

	Sweden	Wisconsin Minnesota North Dakota	U S A
Area (1 000 sq miles)	173	211	3 022
Land	158	205	2 997
Water	15	6	45
Population in 1954 (in thousands)	7 235	7 317	161 195
" " " per sq mile	46	36	54

Sweden is exceptionally rich in lakes and waterways, together they occupy 8.6 % of the country's area Her greatest waterways are the rivers, of which twelve have basins with areas of 4,000—10,000 square miles Ten of them are more than 250 miles long

More than half of the land area consists of woods and hardly one tenth of arable land However, the conditions vary in different parts of the country.

	Götsland	Sweden Svealand	Norrland	Total	U S A
Area (1 000 sq miles)	33	31	94	158	2 977
Whereof in %					
Forest	50	65	53	55	33
Arable land	25	14	2	9	17
Meadow	6	3	1	3	50
Unreclaimable, bogs, etc	19	19	44	34	
Population, 1954 (in thousands)	3 450	2 576	1 209	7 235	161 195
“ “ per sq mile	103	83	13	46	54

Population. At the beginning of 1955 Sweden had a population of 7.2 millions. During the last century the population has increased by 100 %.

A survey of the population and its changes since 1850 is given in the following table.

POPULATION CHANGES

Years	Average Populat on	Marriages	Births	Deaths	Birth Surplus	Em gration	Population Increase
1 Numbers (in thousands)							
1851/55	3 558	26	113	77	36	—	32
1876/80	4 500	30	136	82	54	14	36
1901/05	5 214	31	136	81	55	22	32
1926/30	6 097	41	97	74	23	5	18
1931/35	6 199	45	87	72	15	—5	22
1936/40	6 303	58	93	74	20	—3	24
1941/45	6 501	63	122	69	53	—7	60
1946/50	6 875	58	125	70	55	—20	74
1952	7 125	53	110	68	42	—11	52
1954	7 213	53	105	69	36	—7	42
2 Per 1 000 inhabitants							
1851/55		7.3	31.8	21.7	10.2	—	8.9
1876/80		6.6	30.3	18.3	12.1	3.2	8.1
1901/05		5.9	26.1	15.5	10.6	4.1	6.1
1926/30		6.7	15.9	12.1	3.8	0.8	2.9
1931/35		7.3	14.1	11.6	2.5	—0.8	3.5
1936/40		9.1	14.8	11.7	3.1	—0.5	3.8
1941/45		9.6	18.8	10.6	8.1	—1.1	9.3
1946/50		8.5	18.2	10.2	7.9	—2.8	10.7
1952		7.5	15.5	9.6	5.9	—1.6	7.3
1954		7.3	14.6	9.6	5.0	—1.0	5.9

Industrialization has brought in its wake a heavy urban concentration of the population. As late as 1850, i. e. before modern cities and towns came into being, only one tenth of the country's inhabitants resided in towns. Since 1880 the population growth has largely been confined to towns and larger municipalities, in the really rural districts the internal shift from country to town ("the flight from the country") has brought about a population decrease.

	Population 1950 mill. inh.	%
Towns	3.2	46
Urban communities (of at least 200 inh.)	1.4	20
Rural districts	2.4	34
Total	7.0	100

In 1955 the urban population was distributed over 133 cities and towns, one half of which had more than 10,000 inhabitants. The largest of these are

	Inh. 1955 in thousands		Inh. 1955 in thousands
Stockholm	777	Uppsala	69
Göteborg	373	Västerås	66
Malmö	206	Borås	62
Norrköping	88	Linköping	60
Hälsingborg	73	Eskilstuna	56
Örebro	70		

Ages and Marital status In regard to ages the population was distributed as follows in 1954

Ages	In thousands	%
0—15	1 719	23.8
15—30	1 352	18.7
30—50	2 150	29.7
50—65	1 231	17.0
65—	783	10.8
	7 235	100.0

In Sweden, as in almost all countries with western civilization, the birth' rate has been on the decrease during recent decades. Sweden belongs in the group of countries where it has declined the most. In regard to the death rate Sweden is one of Europe's more fortunate countries. The productive work ages (15—65) at present include a greater number than ever.

The distribution of married and unmarried men and women is indicated by the following table:

	20—65		Ages 65—	
	In thousands	%	In thousands	%
Single..	1 117	26 3	124	18 3
Married	2 912	68 5	288	42.4
Widowed	142	3 3	252	37 1
Divorced	83	1 9	15	2 2
Total	4 252	100 0	679	100 0

Swedes Abroad. Sweden's population would have been considerably larger by now, had it not been for the heavy emigration, especially to the United States, from the early 1860's to the outbreak of the first world war in 1914. During this time an annual average of 25,000 people emigrated, or a total of more than one million. Around 1930 the number of Swedish-born people residing abroad was calculated at about 730,000; those still Swedish citizens but living abroad numbered approximately 160,000. How these were distributed among the various countries is shown in round numbers by the following table.

If "Swedish" is taken to mean everyone of Swedish descent, their number abroad around 1930 was estimated at 2.1 millions, of whom about 1.5 millions were in the United States and about 60,000 in Canada. According to these calculations, the total Swedish population of the world amounts to over 9 millions.

Countries	Born in Sweden	Swedish Citizens
European	85 000	46 000
Norway	31 500	20 000
Denmark	31 500	11 000
Finland	6 500	5 000
Great Britain	5 000	3 500
Germany	1	3 500
France	1	2 500
Non-European	645 000	115 000
United States	595 000	95 500
Canada	34 500	14 500
Australia	4 000	1 500
All Countries	730 000	161 000

¹ Information not available

States and cities with more than 50 000 of its inhabitants either born abroad or having one or both parents born abroad	Swedish Americans	
	1st generation	2nd generation
<i>States</i>		
Illinois	56 128	124 060
Minnesota	43 933	144 965
New York	36 747	56 750
California	31 067	82 740
Massachusetts	21 333	40 795
Washington	20 906	46 065
<i>Cities</i>		
Chicago	31 104	54 580
New York	20 424	23 350
Minneapolis	13 442	36 905
Los Angeles	6 577	16 015
Seattle	6 074	11 515
San Francisco	3 974	7 060

How the Swedish-Americans are distributed percentually in built-up areas, farm districts, and rural non-farm districts is approximated in the following table. It covers Swedish-Americans past the age of 14, as compared to the white population of the entire country

	Swedish Americans		Entire U.S. white population
	1st generation %	2nd generation %	
<i>United States</i>			
Built up areas	74.9	68.7	66.2
Farm districts	9.3	13.2	13.7
Rural non farm districts	15.8	18.1	20.1

Northeast Central States

(Illinois and other states City of Chicago included)

Built up areas	81.8	73.3
Farm districts	7.3	9.9
Rural non farm districts	10.9	16.8

Northwest Central States

(Minnesota and others)

Built up areas	57.0	53.5
Farm districts	20.5	26.2
Rural non farm districts	22.5	20.3

OCCUPATIONAL TABLE

	Employed Swedish Americans			
	1st generation %		2nd generation %	
	M	W	M	W
Agriculture	11.7	3.4	15.5	3.0
Industry and skilled labor	52.5	19.2	37.0	12.6
Business and the professions	19.9	28.6	38.0	67.3
Service occupations	6.5	18.3	3.9	10.5
Domestic work	0.6	28.1	0.1	4.8
Miscellany	8.8	2.4	5.5	1.8

Employment and Occupational Distribution In regard to employment the population of Sweden was distributed as follows at the end of 1950

	Men	Women	Total	%
	In Thousands			
1 Employed	2,296	824	3,120	44
In full time occupation	2,199	800	2,999	42
Family members in part time work	97	24	121	2
2 Not Employed	1,217	2,707	3,924	56
Independents without occupation	293	319	612	9
Housewives	—	1,369	1,369	20
Children under 15	838	805	1,643	23
Other family members	86	214	300	4
Total	3,513	3,513	7,044	100

The distribution of married and unmarried men and women among those gainfully occupied is indicated by the following table:

	In Thousands	Percentage of Total
<i>Men</i>	2 296	65
Married	1 481	91
Single	815	43
<i>Women</i>	824	23
Married	236	15
Single	588	31

In the following table is shown the distribution among the various occupational fields of the population as a whole and of those gainfully employed

	Total Populat on In Thousands	%	Employed In Thousands	%
Agriculture and related occupations	1 649	23	640	21
Industry and crafts	2 888	41	1 278	41
Communications	594	8	250	8
Commerce	896	13	485	15
Civil service and the professions	670	10	342	11
Domestic work	145	2	96	3
Unclassified	202	3	29	1
Total	7 044	100	3 120	100

Income. The country's income distribution is shown by the following table, referring to those from whom income tax declaration was required in 1954. Those with an income below \$ 232 do not need to file and are therefore not included

Income Groups Dollars	Income Rec p ents In Thousands	Percent age	Sum of Incomes In Million Dollars	Percent age
232— 386	406	10.6	103	1.8
386— 579	401	10.5	192	3.4
579— 965	619	16.2	471	8.6
965—1 351	577	15.2	669	12.1
1 351—1 931	905	23.8	1 480	26.7
1 931—3 861	792	20.8	1 938	35.0
3 861—9 653	99	2.6	519	9.4
9 653 and up	10	0.3	160	3.0
Total	3 809	100.0	5 532	100.0

The average income within various occupational groups in 1954 is indicated in the following table

Occupational Group	Average Income in Dollars	
	Entrepreneurs	Employed
Agriculture and related occupations	1 427	992
Building construction	2 091	1 861
Industry and crafts	1 799	1 591
Communication	2 144	1 681
Commerce	2 320	1 373
Civil service	—	1 826
Professions (physicians, lawyers, artists, etc.)	2 819	1 561
Domestic work	—	580
Unclassified	848	816
Average for all groups	1 725	1 739

Average Hourly Wage Income in Dollars, Including Periodic Wage Adjustments, Vacation Pay, Overtime Pay, Pay in Kind, etc., for Adult Men and Women 1948.

	Men	Women
Mining industry	1 05	—
Metal industry and machine shops	0 87	0 62
Earth and stone industry ¹	0 77	0 52
Wood industry ¹	0 74	0 55
Pulp and paper industry	0 81	0 59
Paper products and graphic industry	0 90	0 61
Food industry	0 74	0 57
Breweries and tobacco industry	0 76	0 60
Textile and clothing industry	0 71	0 56
Leather and rubber industry	0 79	0 56
Chemical industry	0 82	0 58
Construction industry	1 11	—
Public works and construction	0 88	0 66
Communal works and construction	0 93 ²	0 62 ²
Bus and trucking companies	0 67	—
Agricultural workers	0 56	0 42
Forest workers (cutters) ³	0 82	—
Gardeners	0 61	0 46
Road construction workers ⁴	0 79	—

¹ These industries are in general located in the country, where the lower living costs cause lower wages as compared to the more heavily populated localities and their industries

² Refers to 1953

³ Refers to the winter 1954-55

⁴ Road maintenance workers

Agriculture. Sweden is definitely a country of small farms. In 1951 they numbered 378,000, of which about three fourths had less than 25 acres of arable land.

Percentual Distribution of Farms and their Total Arable Land in 1944

Acres	Under 2.5	2.5-12.5	12.5-25	25-50	50-75	75-125	Over 125
Percentage of farms	11.9	38.9	23.7	15.8	4.7	3.0	2.0
Percentage of arable land	1.0	11.9	58.7	23.6	12.0	11.9	20.9

Of the total population, 1.2 million earn their living from farming and cattle raising. The distribution is shown in the following table, where the absolute figures represent thousands.

	Employed			Family Members			Total	%
	Men	Women	Total	House-wives	Children under 15	Others		
Entrepreneurs	302	32	334	222	266	92	914	74
Administrative personnel	12	—	12	8	10	1	31	2
Workers	174	19	193	40	55	7	295	24
Total	488	51	539	270	331	100	1,240	100
Percentage of total	39	4	43	22	27	8	100	

Use and yield of the arable land as of 1955 is shown in the following table, where the yield is given in thousands of metric tons and the area in thousands of acres.

	Yield	Area	Percentage of Arable Land
Wheat ...	747	872.3	9.7
Rye ..	176	234.8	2.6
Barley .	423	526.3	5.8
Oats...	634	1,260.2	14.0
Mixed grain	347	743.5	8.2
Peas, vetch	23	61.8	0.7
Crops for grazing and green fodder..	—	175.4	1.9
Potatoes	1,339	303.9	3.4
Sugar beets	1,630	131.0	1.4
Root crops for fodder	773	76.6	0.9

	Yield	Area	Percentage of Arable Land
Oil plants (rape etc.)	138	249.7	2.8
Pasture and other crops.....	3 529	3 820.3	42.4
Fallow and unused land	—	556.0	6.2
Total	—	9 012.1	100.0

The distribution of Swedish livestock as of 1954 is shown below.

	In Thousands
Horses	335
Cattle:.....	2 555
Oxen and bulls.....	37
Cows.....	1 525
Young cattle.	518
Calves.....	476
Sheep	203
Goats	8

Animal production during 1954 is indicated by the following figures in million lbs.:

Total production of milk.....	9 596.6
Milk for consumption	3 326.7
Cream for consumption	97.0
Butter	207.2
Cheese.....	121.3
Meat and pork.....	738.5
Eggs.....	183.0
Poultry	28.7

Fishing in the Baltic and on the west coast adds a considerable increment to Sweden's food supply and in 1954 gave occupation to 20,300 people.

Forestry. The conditions for silviculture are exceptionally favorable in Sweden. Productive forests cover no less than 55 %, or 86,500 square miles, of the country's area and yield timber of good quality. In 1938—1952 the total timber supply

in stands was estimated at 65,000 million cubic feet, of which 26,000 million cubic feet, or 40.5 %, were pine and 29,280 million, or 42 %, were spruce. The annual growth is calculated at 62.4 million cubic yards, including 1,369 million cubic feet of pine and 1,785 million of spruce.

Two thirds of the forest resources are located in Norrland. Because of the climatic conditions the growth is slowest in the far north. It amounts to about 43.2 cubic feet per acre in southern Norrland, between 43.2 and 56.7 cubic feet per acre in central Sweden, and somewhat less in the southern parts of the country.

The tremendous importance of the forests in Sweden's economy is indicated by the fact that in the interim between the two world wars the export of forest industry products ranged between 168 and 189 million dollars, or from one third to one half of the country's total exports. Approximately one seventh of the national income is derived from the forests.

One half of the Swedish forests area is owned by private individuals, one fourth by commercial companies. The last fourth is divided among the state (19 %), the Church, the communes, and other associations, the latter three sharing the remaining 6 %. Most of the state and company forests are located in northern Sweden.

Of the felled timber, which in 1953 amounted to about 1,225 million cubic feet annually, about 65 % was used for industrial processing, 29 % for household needs, 4 % in the production of charcoal, and 2 % for industrial fuel.

Industry. The number of industrial concerns, number of workers, and the production within the various fields of industry are shown by the table on the following pages. In the columns below, the industrial undertakings are classified in terms of number of workers employed in the year 1951.

Number of Employees	Number of Concerns	Employed	
		In thousands	Percentages
1-2	41 663	53 582	5.2
3-5	15 322	57 704	5.6
6-10	8 243	62 106	6.1
11-25	6 455	104 091	10.2
26-50	2 664	94 559	9.2
51-100	1 414	99 172	9.7
101-200	810	112 376	11.0
201-500	519	160 116	15.7
501--	242	279 387	27.3
Total 77 332		1 023 093	100.0

Production in the various mines during 1954, in thousands of metric tons, is shown by the following figures.

Iron ore and concentrates.....	15 346	Hard coal	267
Pig iron	939	Zinc ore.....	104
Blooms, crude bars, and ingots	1 835	Lead.....	20
Wrought and hot-rolled iron		Copper	17
and steel	1 378		

In 1954 Sweden produced 5,827 lbs. of gold and 118,635 lbs. of silver.

SWEDISH INDUSTRIES IN 1953

	Concerns	Workers in Thousands	Production in Million Dollars
1. Mining Industry	109	13.4	201.9
2. Metal Industry and Machine Shops....	4,923	265.1	2 130.1
Iron and steel works	53	31.8	292.7
Manufacture of iron and steel.....	547	19.4	123.6
Machine shops and foundries.....	2 827	134.6	1 000.8
Sheet metal goods.....	323	5.7	35.5
Electrical equipment.....	283	30.4	259.8
Shipyards	132	24.1	199.6
Other related industries	758	19.1	218.1
3. Earth and Stone Industries	1 191	34.3	174.2
Quarries	366	6.0	19.9
Manufacture of cement and cement goods..	279	6.2	65.4

	Concerns	Workers in Thousands	Product on in Million Dollars
Brickyards	204	6 5	23 7
Glass manufacture	105	5 8	22 0
Other related industries	267	9 8	43 2
4 Wood Industry	2 853	57 1	402 3
Sawmills and planing mills	1 053	25 4	232 2
Carpentry shops and furniture factories	1 563	26 6	137 8
Other related industries	237	5 1	32.2
5 Pulp and Paper Industries	327	45 9	532 6
Pulp factories	72	18 7	269 9
Paper and cardboard factories	166	5 3	44 0
Other related industries	89	21 9	218 7
6. Graphic Industry	789	25 0	166 6
7 Food Industry	1 953	41 9	1 051 3
Flour mills	59	1 6	75 1
Bakeries	731	10 9	91 3
Sugar refineries	21	2 5	91 9
Dairies	417	7 0	294 8
Abattoirs and meat processing	307	9 2	265 8
Other related industries	418	10 7	232.4
8 Beverage and Tobacco Industries	385	9 4	240 7
Wine and spirits	119	1 4	34 9
Breweries	226	5 4	61 2
Tobacco industry	8	1 6	137 3
Other related industries	32	1 0	7 3
9 Textile and Clothing Industries	1 478	91 9	543 2
Woolen industries	107	12 9	85 3
Cotton industries	78	14 8	93 6
Knitted goods mills	225	9 7	56 0
Cloth goods manufacture	692	38 6	213 3
Other related industries	376	15 9	95 0
10 Leather and Rubber Industries	654	25 6	180 5
Shoe factories	234	9 1	50 6
Rubber factories	32	6 8	56.8
Other related industries	388	9 7	73 2

	Concerns	Workers in Thousands	Production in Million Dollars
11. Chemical Industries.	487	22.2	375.3
12. Power Plants, Gas- and Water Works	678	14.0	224.7
Power plants	452	10.3	182.8
Gasworks	29	1.9	27.4
Water works.....	197	1.8	14.5
Total	15 837	645.9¹	6 223.4

¹ This figure does not include the administrative personnel engaged in industry which in 1953 amounted to 158,269 or about 20 % of the total number of persons employed.

Water Power. In respect to available water power Sweden is one of the most favored countries in Europe. According to the latest estimates it totals 15.8 million kilowatts, corresponding to a potential power production of 138 billion kilowatt hours a year. However, it is believed that at present the utilization of only about 50 billion would be profitable. At the end of 1954 actual output had reached 16 billion kilowatt hours and construction to produce about 8 billion more had been begun. Northern Sweden, Norrland, supplies even now more than half of the hydroelectric power; when present projects are completed Norrland's share will rise to two thirds.

In 1952 the consumed power was 17.8 billion kilowatt hours. Of this, 10.6 billions was used by industry, 1.5 billions by railroads and tramways, 4.7 billions by individual and business consumers.

Communications.

	Sweden 1954	U.S.A. 1952
Railroads		
Trackage (in miles)	10 222	214 073
„ per 1 000 inhabitants	1.42	1.42
Electrified trackage.....	4 055	2 580
Automobiles		
Total number (in thousands).....	630	53 265

Passengers cars	514	44 303
Number of passenger cars per 1 000 inhabitants	88	282
Telephones		
Number of telephones (in thousands)	1 994	50 373
" " " per 1 000 inhabitants	277	311
Average number of calls per person	304	380
Radio Broadcasting		
Number of receivers (in thousands)	2 391	120 500
" " " per 1 000 inhabitants	332	755

Commerce. A very large number of private concerns engage in wholesale or retail selling and employ a considerable part (12 %) of the gainfully occupied population. In 1950 there were 365,000 people so employed, distributed as follows, in thousands.

	Men	Women	Total
Entrepreneurs	57	17	74
Administrative personnel	104	123	226
Workers	212	153	365

Export and Import. In terms of foreign trade per capita Sweden is one of the leading nations. The customs tariff is lower than that of most other countries.

The following table, listing the major classes of goods, shows the general composition of Sweden's foreign trade during 1955

	Milhon Dollars	%		Milhon Dollars	%
Hard coal and coke	114.5	5.8	Iron and base metal manu		
Raw material for textiles	88.2	4.4	facture	61.0	3.5
Coffee	74.3	3.7	Chemical products	46.9	2.7
Fruit and berries	59.1	3.0	Copper	29.9	1.7
Instruments watches	43.6	2.2	Ball and roller bearings	25.3	1.5
Grain	26.8	1.4	Hides pelts, and furs	20.3	1.2
Miscellaneous	420.8	21.2	Weapons and ammunition	18.5	1.1
			Miscellaneous	173.9	10.1
Total 1987.8			Total 1726.7		

The following table shows Sweden's chief import and export countries, figures for 1955 in million dollars

	Imports	Exports
West Germany	435.7	228.4
Great Britain	272.2	336.9
USA	195.2	84
Netherlands	140.9	106
Norway	63.1	169.9
France	89.4	89.6
Belgium	96.5	80.7
Denmark	73	100.4
Italy	56.4	50.6
Brazil	52.7	31.5
Switzerland	42.6	21.2
Finland	12.4	38
Soviet Union	31.9	14.7
Poland	23.4	17.6
Australia	11	26.8

National Income and Expenditures The national budget for the fiscal year July 1, 1956—June 30, 1957, calculated income and expenditures as follows

Income	Million Dollars	Expenditures	Million Dollars
Income and property taxes	1 202 1	Social welfare	617 0
Automobile tax	198 8	Defence	400 0
Tobacco tax	131 3	Education and the Church	228 2
Alcoholic beverage tax	198 3	Roads and communications	198 1
Customs and other duties	211 4	Agriculture	80 7
Other taxes and receipts	215 1	Other expenditures	633 0
Total 2 156 9		Total 2 156 9	

Taxes Direct taxes on income and property are paid in Sweden to both the state and the local units. The national taxes are progressive, the local ones proportional to the income. Since 1947 both have been collected at the source, i.e. the taxes of employees are paid by the employer, who deducts the corresponding amount from current wages. The amount of the tax can in many instances not be definitely calculated before the end of the year during which the income was received. The tax payer is then obliged to declare his income and property assets, on the basis of which the tax authorities establish the taxable amount. The taxes vary in the different parts of the country.

In Stockholm the following amounts are levied in national and local taxes in 1956

Yearly Income Dollars	Single without Children		Married	
	Tax Dollars	Percentage of Income	Tax Dollars	Percentage of Income
386	18 53	4 8	11 58	3 0
579	60 23	10 4	32 43	5 6
772	113 51	14 7	62 55	8 1
965	159 85	16 6	97 30	10 1
1 158	206 2	17 8	145 95	12 6
1 544	317 37	20 6	252 51	16 4
1 931	430 89	22 3	342 86	17 8
2 317	553 67	23 9	435 52	18 8
2 896	773 75	26 7	590 73	20 4
3 861	1 160 62	30 1	915 06	23 7
5 792	2 036 29	35 2	1 688 80	29 2
7 722	3 011 58	39 0	2 624 71	34 0
9 653	4 246 33	44 0	3 861 78	40 0

Public Services

State Operated:

Entirely: Mails, telegraph, telephone, the National Pensions

Almost entirely: Railroads, highways, water power, higher education, workmen's compensation insurance

Locally operated: Electricity, gas, water, sewers, stockyards, ports, lower education, medical care, care of the poor, child welfare.

Social Welfare. In Sweden of today social welfare is carried into effect by means of an especially diverse series of laws. The general aim is to protect the life and health of each citizen or to give help or support to replace the loss of income.

The expenditures for social insurance and the major part of other welfare measures financed by the state and the communes in Sweden amounted during 1954 to \$ 810.8 million. This amount represents an impressive 11 % of the nation's income. The greater part of the cost is covered through taxes, direct and indirect, by the state, the provincial assemblies, and the communal councils. Of the total expenditures 57 % (\$ 463.7 million) were borne by the state and 30 % (\$ 238.4 million) by communes and provinces. The rest was absorbed by social insurance: Employers' payments to accident insurance 3 % (\$ 26 million) and a total of 10 % to other types of insurance—sickness insurance (\$ 30.3 million), unemployment insurance (\$ 9.5 million), and people's pension (\$ 38.4 million). On the average the social welfare expenditures amounted to \$ 111.60 per capita, or for an average family of two adults and two children \$ 446.

The money was distributed as follows:

	Million Dollars
Sickness insurance	44 2
Hygiene and nursing, additional	184 2
Accident insurance and workers' protection	28 3
Unemployment insurance	17 6

	Million Dollars
Employment agencies and public works	7.5
People's pension	292.5
Child subsidies	104.8
Public care of children	17.4
School lunches	19.7
Poor relief (general social aid)	36.3
Miscellaneous	55.4
Total	807.8

Popular Movements The membership in leading Swedish popular movements—political and economic organizations not included—is as follows

	Members
Sports organizations	876 000
Red Cross	550 000
Non-conformist groups	374 000
Temperance movement	322 000
Tourist associations	207 000
Women's Auxiliary Corps	110 000
Scouts	88 000

The nonconformist groups, whose adherents as a rule have not severed their connections with the state church, are nowadays generally recognized by the Church of Sweden. The most important denominations are listed below

	Number of Members
Covenant Mission Church of Sweden	101 000
Pentecostal Movement	90 000
Salvation Army	40 000
Swedish Baptists	35 000
The Methodist Church	12 000
Free Baptists	4 000
Seventh Day Adventists	3 000

Non-Lutheran faiths were represented in 1955 by about 6,000 Roman Catholics and 12,500 Jews, the figures including only those who were Swedish citizens

The Press. In 1955, 227 newspapers were published in Sweden. During the first six months of 1955, the following papers recorded the largest circulations, figures representing average number of copies per weekday.

Dagens Nyheter (P)	300 000
Expressen (P)	265 300
Göteborgs Posten (P)	217 700
Stockholms-Tidningen (P)	181 100
Aftonbladet (P)	175 900
Svenska Dagbladet (C)	104 000
Sydsvenska Dagbladet (C)	74 700
Aftontidningen (S)	68 300
Morgon-Tidningen (S)	48 100
Arbetet (S)	46 200
Göteborgs Handels- och Sjöfartstidning (P)	45 500
Ny Tid (S)	40 100

P=People's Party, C=Conservatives, S=Social Democrats.

Tidningarnas Telegrambyrå (abbr. TT) is the news gathering and disseminating press association of Sweden.

Tidningsstatistik Aktiebolag (abbr. TS)—The Circulation Audit Bureau—was established in 1942. It makes an annual audit of the *net* sales and geographical distribution of all the newspapers in accordance with a uniform tabulation system.

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